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ABSTRACT

This summary of the development and implementation of the Study of Induction Programs for Beginning Teachers includes descriptions of the methods used to obtain data as well as recommendations and conclusions drawn from the study. Critical questions in the investigation were: (1) What are the problems of beginning teachers? (2) What kinds of programs have facilitated the solution of these problems? and (3) What are the consequences of failing to solve these problems in terms of achieving teacher effectiveness and stimulating a career of progressive professional development? Information was gathered by a review of relevant literature, identification of and visits to programs designed to assist beginning teachers, and a review of evaluation reports of the programs. Twenty-four programs were examined in depth; of these, four were selected for site visits by the staff of the Educational Testing Service. Educators concerned about the problems and issues of beginning teachers were consulted. The four-volume report resulting from the study discusses problems and issues covered, the methodology used, comprehensive descriptions of exemplary programs, a review of the literature, and the names and locations of educators interested and involved in programs for beginning teachers. (JD)

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STUDY OF INDUCTION PROGRAMS FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS

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Executive Summary

Frederick J. McDonald

A project conducted by Educational Testing Service for the National
Institute of Education, Dr. Joseph Vaughn, Project Officer
(Contract No. 400-78-0069)

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PREFACE

The Study of Induction Programs for Beginning Teachers began as an investigation of fifth-year post-baccalaureate teacher internship programs in which the intern taught half-time while completing an academic program leading to a master's degree. After the start of the study, it became clear that most teacher "intern" programs in the United States did not fit this model. The focus of the study was expanded to an examination of the problems of beginning teachers. The critical questions in this investigation are:

- What are the problems of beginning teachers?
- What kinds of programs have facilitated the solution of these problems?
- What are the consequences of failing to solve these problems in terms of achieving teacher effectiveness and stimulating a career of progressive professional development?

Three approaches were used to gather information on these issues: a review of the relevant literature, the identification of and visits to programs designed to assist beginning teachers, and a review of the evaluation reports of the programs. Twenty-four programs were examined in depth as part of the study. Of these, four were site visits. Educators throughout the nation who are concerned about the problems of beginning teachers were consulted.

The final report of this study consists of four volumes. The first volume discusses the problems and issues covered by the study, describes the methodology utilized in the study, and provides a series of recommendations for teacher educators and policy makers. Comprehensive descriptions of exemplary programs for beginning teachers are included in the second volume. The digest of programs is intended to assist educators who either

wish to implement or improve induction programs. The third volume provides a review of the literature. The names and locations of educators interested and involved in programs for beginning teachers are provided in the fourth volume.

The project was directed by Project Co-Directors, Dr. Frederick J. McDonald, Senior Research Scientist, Division of Educational Research and Evaluation, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 08541, and Dr. Patricia Elias, Director of Research and Advisory Services, Educational Testing Service, Berkeley, California, 94704. Information about the study and reports are available from either.

The study was funded by the National Institute of Education (Contract No. 400-78-0069). Dr. Joseph Vaughn, the Project Officer, deserves major credit for exercising the leadership and having the vision to expand the study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project could not have been completed without the assistance and cooperation of many individuals. Carol Stevenson served as the consultant to the project throughout the study. Roni Simon coordinated much of the information collection effort and information management. Mary Lee Fisher prepared a review of the relevant literature. All three participated in the site visits.

An advisory board provided guidance to project staff and helped in reformulating the study. Members of the advisory board included: Dr. Jere Brophy, Michigan State University; Dr. Elizabeth Cohen, Stanford University; Dr. Kevin Ryan, Ohio State University; and Dr. Richard Smuck, University of Oregon. We were also assisted by Dr. L. O. Andrews, Emeritus, Ohio State University; Dr. Ray Bolam, University of Bristol, England; and Dr. Jonathan Sandoval, University of California, Davis.

Throughout the project and during the production of the final report, coordination was a key element in the project's success. Alice Norby was the Project Secretary in the Princeton Office. Nancy Castille was the Project Secretary in the Berkeley Office. Other individuals who supported the project co-directors in various aspects of the production of the final report included: 1) Wanda Collins, Jean Gutterman, Bill Theiss, Carlos Velasquez, Monica Laurens, Barbara Sanchez, Robert Allen and Nannette Fox who produced the reports in Berkeley; 2) Ingrid Otten, Michael Walsh, Patricia Wheeler and Alice Setteducati who edited the reports in Berkeley; 3) Helen Tarr, Christine Sansone, and Veronica Morris, who coordinated the transmission of materials from Princeton to Berkeley; and 4) Lois Harris who helped type materials in Princeton.

We must acknowledge the support and cooperation of the many educators throughout the nation who provided verbal and written information to us throughout the project. Their unfailing assistance through sometimes several phone calls and their genuine interest in the project were invaluable to us.

And, lastly, we again express our gratitude to the staff and participants of the beginning teacher induction programs who provided us with the opportunity to visit them. The project could not have been done without the time and information they so generously shared with us.

Frederick J. McDonald
Patricia Elias
Project Co-Directors

January, 1982
Educational Testing Service
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THE TRANSITION INTO TEACHING:

A HUMAN ENCOUNTER

A new teacher only two months out of college walks into a classroom of high school students in a city far from her college and her home. It is 8:30 a.m. on the first day of school. She has never seen any of these students before and knows only the few items of information she has culled from their records.

She has had four years to prepare to teach this class but is she ready to teach it? This question has consumed her thoughts of the last few days. Her stomach may be in an uproar. She may not have slept much last night. She may be fighting panic. Fear certainly is in her mind.

In the next hour, the rest of this day, the remainder of the week, and for many weeks afterwards this teacher will struggle to teach well; as well as she can. She will worry about whether she is being too strict or too easy.¹ She will not be quite sure for some time whether she has prepared enough material for each lesson or too little. She will worry about how she is to evaluate her pupils' work.

It will be weeks before she knows what these students are like, what she can expect of them, what their kidding, their shyness, their aggressiveness means. What does she do about those students who ignore her rules or who act as if they can do as they please? What if she shouts at them? What if she becomes angry? Dare she lose her "cool"?

On many days she will be exhausted and emotionally drained. If things do not go well, she will become more anxious, maybe on the verge of panic.

¹ Hoy, W. The influence of experience on the beginning teacher. School Review, 1968, 76, 312-323.

There will be times when she will wonder why she has chosen to teach.

This is what beginning teaching is like for most teachers. They feel inadequate, unprepared, and unready.² Do they feel this way because they are inept or incompetent? Because they are untrained? Because they lack understanding of what their students are like? Because they have lived too isolated a life, or because they came from another community, or of a different social stratum than the students they are teaching.

The Transition Period in the Lives of Teachers

For most teachers the first experiences of "regular" teaching are traumatic. Some emerge from them defeated, depressed, constrained; others with a sense of efficacy, confidence and growing sureness in their teaching skill. These first days are dramatically different from all which have preceded them.³ Can the teacher be adequately prepared for this experience? Does the teacher need special support during it?

² Lortie, D. C. Teacher socialization. In The real world of the beginning teacher. Report of the 19th National TEPS Conference, 1966. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1966.

Rehage, K. J. Induction: When student becomes teacher. NASSP Bulletin, 1968, 52, 144-155. (ED 024 621)

Ryan, K. (Ed.). Don't smile until Christmas: Accounts of the first year of teaching. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970.

Ryan, K. Survival is not good enough: Overcoming the problems of beginning teachers. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1974. (ED 090 200)

³ Gaede, O. F. Reality shock: A problem among first-year teachers. Clearing House, 1978, 51, 405-409.

There is no officially accepted name for this first period of "real" teaching which begins on the first day of school and lasts until the teacher has mastered the basic demands and elemental tasks of teaching. It has most recently been called the induction period.⁴ We are here calling it the transition period. Labeling the period, whatever the label, calls attention to a period in the lives of teachers which is special in character, and of great importance to their success and remarkably distinctive from all that has preceded it.

We chose to call it a "transition period" because it is, we think, a marked, radical change in the life of the person who is becoming a teacher. This time is most typically not an "induction," a word which implies a process of "leading into." The beginning teacher "falls" into full-time teaching. He typically has no idea what it will be like and there is no one to tell him or show him. He ought to be "inducted," but most frequently is not.

The Study of the Beginning Teacher

We propose here in these pages that the study of the beginning teacher is a study of critical events in the development of a teacher. This study is essential if we are to understand how teachers can become more professional and more competent; why some experienced teachers

⁴ Bolam, R. Induction programmes for probationary teachers. Bristol, England: University of Bristol, 1973.

Zeichner, K. M. Teacher induction practices in the U.S. and in Great Britain. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April 1979.

are resistant to further professional development and why some forms of teacher preparation have such limited effects on competence and a teacher's sense of efficacy.

The Neglect of the Transition Period

The transition period into teaching is no one's responsibility except the individual teacher's. The colleges of teacher education have no programs for the beginners if they have graduated before beginning to teach. School systems do have orientation programs for new teachers but they are primarily devices for giving information about personnel and curriculum matters; they are brief; they are not attuned to the needs of individual teachers. The supervisory systems in schools serve no real function in this respect as far as anyone can detect. They have the particular liability of being linked to the evaluation of the teacher.

This neglect is in part a failure to allot responsibility and in part a failure in understanding and imagination. We know much about the problems of beginning teachers yet we know little about how to help them. We have not assigned, nor have the major institutions--the colleges, the school systems, the state education departments, the teachers' organizations--assumed significant responsibilities for helping the beginner. All do something; each would do more, they say; yet little is done, now nor has it been done for decades.

This study describes and analyzes the problems of beginning teachers and the different kinds of training and assistance programs for preparing and helping them to cope with these problems. It asks: what are these

problems and what can be done to relieve beginning teachers of them, to prevent their occurrence, or to ameliorate them if they are inevitable? We analyze why these problems occur, why training programs have not necessarily prevented their occurrence and why various other arrangements have not obviated them.

THE PURPOSES, METHODS AND MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS
OF THIS STUDY

This study used three methods of inquiry: 1) the research literature on the teaching internship and induction programs has been collected, culled, analyzed and summarized;⁵ 2) existing intern and induction programs have been described;⁶ and 3) site visits were made of representative programs and these were described.⁷ The goal of these methods was to describe what is now known about the internship and induction programs--how they are designed, how they are administered and what they cost. Evaluations of these programs have also been collected, analyzed and summarized.

This information and that gathered from teachers, administrators and teacher educators has been organized into: 1) a model of the development of the beginning of teaching; 2) a description of the transition into teaching; and 3) models of preparation and induction programs for the beginning teacher. These analyses and conceptualizations led us to an evaluation of the status of our knowledge about the transition period, and from there to recommendations about research on it and its effects on

⁵ See Volume III of this study: Elias, P., Fisher, M. L., & Simon, R. Helping beginning teachers through the first years: A review of the literature. Princeton, N.J., Educational Testing Service, 1980.

⁶ See Volume IV: Simon, R. Educators interested and involved in programs for beginning teachers: A human resource bank. Princeton, N.J., Educational Testing Service, 1980.

⁷ See Volume II: Elias, P., McDonald, F. J., Stevenson, C., Simon, R., & Fisher, M. L. The problems of beginning teachers: The digest of helping programs.

teachers. We also recommend policy studies which need to be done if this critical period in the life of a teacher is to be rescued from the disinterest and lack of programmatic attention which it now receives.

The Survey of Internships

We began our investigation by studying teaching internships. These programs were developed to give the prospective teacher experiences as close to those of daily teaching as possible. But these experiences were to be guided and informed by concurrent study and managed under the tutorial supervision of teacher educators.⁸

Different conceptions of the internship have been advocated in the past. The major proposals have recommended a period of preservice training capped with a year of an internship. The internship was to be prepared for by a progressive program of observation, practicum experiences in the schools, and student or practice teaching. The Association for Teacher Educators recommended that teachers in training move through several levels of teaching positions from assistant teacher, to associate teacher, and to intern.⁹

The other major type of internship is the fifth-year program in which a part-time or full-time teaching position is assumed after completion of a liberal arts baccalaureate program. This teaching

⁸ Many interesting programs are called "intern" programs. We ignored those programs for which the label is a euphemism for student practice teaching.

⁹ Association for Teacher Educators. Guidelines to clinical experiences in teacher education. Position Paper 3. Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators, 1973. (ED 081 722)

is supervised by the school system and the college. It is an on-the-job training program.¹⁰

The Survey of Induction Programs

The British have recently experimented with programs for beginning teachers which are conducted by a local school-district. These programs differ from internships in that the beginning teachers had completed preservice program and were on-the-job full-time. The goal was to help beginning teachers to increase their effectiveness and to master the transition period into teaching.¹¹

The British experiments have generated considerable interest among educators in this country. We summarized the literature on them and we discussed them with Mr. Ray Bolam, the Director of the original evaluation of these projects and a member of the research unit of the Teacher Induction Pilot Scheme at the University of Bristol in England. We were particularly interested in how they differed from the internships which are advocated in this country.

THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS

What are the focal problems of training and assistance with which internships and induction schemes are concerned? How would an induction

¹⁰ Woodring, P. New directions in teacher education. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957.

¹¹ Bolam, R. Induction programmes for probationary teachers. Bristol, England: University of Bristol, 1973.

Bolam, R., Baker, K., & McMahon, A. The T.I.P.S. project national evaluation report. Bristol, England: University of Bristol, School of Education, 1979.

program differ from an internship? Should an internship precede induction or is it an alternative to an induction program?

After thinking about these questions, we have made the transition period into teaching the time-frame and the locus of developmental change in our analysis of the problems of beginning teachers. We see schemes such as teaching internships or probationary assistance programs or induction programs as ways of mediating, facilitating this transition, or preparing for or assisting during it.

We have organized the results of our investigation around the problems of the beginning teacher which occur at this transition from trainee to teacher. We have analyzed the teaching internship and the British induction schemes and their American equivalents for their effectiveness in helping teachers with these problems of the transition into teaching.

The critical and major questions of this investigation were:

- 1 - What are the problems of beginning teachers?
- 2 - What kinds of programs have facilitated the solution of these problems?
- 3 - What are the consequences of failing to solve these problems for achieving teaching effectiveness and for a career of progressive professional development?

Methods of Inquiry

Data about the problems of beginning teachers and about internships and induction programs were collected from studies, observations of

programs, interviews of trainees in and graduates of programs, and talks with experienced teachers and teacher educators.

On the problems of beginning teachers the results are uniform and almost identical irrespective of the empirical method used to ascertain them, the quality of the design and analysis in particular studies, the decade when the study was done, and even the country where the study was done.¹² This near universal agreement is either a close estimate of the true state of affairs or a widespread delusion.

Data on what programs were like were carefully checked where we visited representative programs. Claims for effectiveness of programs were more or less valid. Evaluation data are skimpy. There are no rigorous evaluations of programs that we know of. We have examined these claims carefully and winnowed out those which were exaggerated.

By a process of comparing reports, and analyzing studies, observations, and talk about experiences, we sifted out the common features of these different programs. We pinpointed their important problems (this was easy because people were quite frank about what they did not like about programs or what had to be changed or what had originally seemed like a good idea but turned out not to be). We engaged in open, thoughtful discussions with teachers, teacher educators, and with each other, trying out explanations of what we had seen or heard or read, and asking about what worked and what needed to be done for the beginning teacher.

We present here a summary of all this good sense. It is practical

¹² See, for example: Beginning to teach: The induction of beginning teachers in Australia. Research Report on Stage II of the Teacher Induction Project. Clayton, Australia: Monash University, 1978.

wisdom collected from many people. It is what we know about beginning teachers, and whether or not our programs help them.

A study of this kind does not yield a set of firm conclusions. Rather it develops questions and ideas for "maybe ifs". It is as good and as useful as these questions are for thinking about policies and for building models of programs to try out, for inquiry and for formal research.

The critical aspect of our methodology is the reasoning, the analysis, the hypothesizing. This reasoning is mostly inductive. Our sources of "facts" are listed so they can be checked. Our reasoning can be analyzed because it is on display here.

Analysis of the Research Literature

The research literature is described in a separate volume (Volume III), and the methods used to collect and collate it are described there in detail. We used the usual procedures for collecting literature (by doing computer searches of available indices of literature, for example). These lists were winnowed out in a three-stage process. One of the project's staff members first reviewed the articles by titles for obvious relevancy, then reviewed abstracts of these articles if their titles suggested relevance, and from this reading of the abstracts selected a basic list of articles which were xeroxed for members of the staff to read. A system for reading and interchanging articles to compare conclusions from them was established. Six members of the staff participated at different times in the reading of the research literature.

The literature is more rhetorical than it is descriptive. Not much of it presents empirical data or analyses of data. There are a number of reports which represent solid proposals for the development of different types of programs and these proposals were used as frames of reference for thinking about possible kinds of induction programs and internships.

The literature on the problems of beginning teachers is fairly extensive, but is largely dissertation-type research. Almost all of it falls into exactly the same mode of research investigation and of research methodology. The results of these studies are remarkably similar.

The literature, both descriptive and empirical, leaves much to be desired. There is very little detailed descriptions of programs. Their historical record is miniscule and impoverished. It is difficult to know what was done, and how changes were made in programs over the years and what the major results of the use of these programs were. But there is enough information to have at least a general idea of what a program was like. The claims for its achievements can be categorized and examined. But the literature is a very weak literature by almost any criteria that might be used in an evaluation of it.

Identification of Representative Programs

We used several procedures to locate noteworthy programs. We talked to officers in the State Departments of Education who were responsible for teacher certification or teacher education because an internship program in their states had to be approved by these departments. In this way we located existing programs as well as those which once had been in existence.

Certification officers directed us to individuals who were directing programs, and we in turn contacted them by phone. A form for interviewing these individuals was prepared and sent to them in advance. The survey form was filled in as we talked on the phone to these individuals. This form and how it was used is described in Volume II and a list of all programs and key personnel identified is in Volume IV.

At the time of this initial survey we requested that additional information be sent to us, and we asked if we might call back to fill in information that we had not obtained either in the original conversation or from the program's literature. We also indicated that we were going to select a number of programs to visit and asked if the program director to whom we were talking would be amenable to such a visit. Invariably these program directors agreed to a visit. The reports of these visits and surveys appear in Volume II where each program and the source of information about it is listed with a description of the program.

The Selection of Prototypes For Site Visits

We picked internship programs to visit which had been operating for at least two decades. Our reasoning was that such programs obviously had been accepted as workable and useful. The major characteristics used to select among these internships were: whether the program had a conceptual basis (particularly its conception of the problems of beginning teachers); the setting of the training programs--urban, rural, suburban; the level of schooling for which teachers were being prepared; the degree or certificate to be obtained; the kind of organizing unit--college,

teacher center, inservice program; the program's principal features; and the evaluation designs and methods being used. Variation could not be found on all of these characteristics.

We proceeded similarly to identify induction programs for beginning teachers located in school districts. There were very few of these; most had a relatively short history, and two were just beginning. The number of these programs (excluding traditional orientation programs) is probably no larger than five. Choosing a prototype in this case was much easier. Two quite different programs had been operating for several years, and one of them agreed to a visit.

We asked a variety of people to nominate "exemplary" programs, programs recognized as one of the best of their kind. There was a remarkable concurrence in these nominations. The final selection of a representative was made by considering these nominations and all other information we had about the program arranged in a sampling matrix of the significant characteristics.

The purpose of the site visit was to have a face-to-face meeting with the people who had developed the programs and who participated in them, and to observe whatever activities we could observe in progress. Each site visit was also an opportunity to discuss a variety of issues and problems with directors, faculty, supervisors, and beginning teachers. Each person with whom we spoke provided us with his or her ideas on these issues and problems. We were thus able to relate the details of the program to the kinds of thinking which various people were bringing to bear on the problems of teacher education. In this way we developed more

understanding of why various features of a program were being used or had been discontinued and of the constraints under which the program necessarily functioned.

Analysis and Interpretation of the Data

We quickly established the relevant facts available in the research literature early in the program of investigation. The task was considerably facilitated by the repetitious character of what has been written. But there were also serious omissions in descriptions of programs which we remedied by the detailed information which we obtained in the phone survey and in site visits.

We began by organizing the basic descriptive data about a program or a program type, and used this information as a control on our interpretation. One of our tasks was to look beyond these rather limited sources of data for understandings and interpretations consistent with the facts. We talked, we proposed, we cross-checked, we sought out people who knew more than we did or whose ideas we thought would be particularly valuable. Out of that amalgam of data, analysis, interpretation and constant questioning we arrived at the interpretations of the problems of beginning teachers and of the values of certain programs for helping them which appear in this report in all of its volumes.

We have proceeded in the spirit of inquiry. What we have observed has suggested interpretations to us and raised questions in our minds which we have presented here. Wherever possible we have educed the kinds of evidence which is currently available on the matter in question. We

offer these analyses and interpretations therefore for debate and discussion which will lead to the formal policy and research studies which are badly needed in this aspect of teacher education.

What may be most difficult for some readers to accept is our emphasis on the transition period as the critical stage in the development of a teacher. We do not claim that we can prove this point; it is an interpretation of what the literature seems to be telling us about the development of teachers. It is buttressed by our own observations of teachers (and as a group we have worked with a substantial number of beginning teachers).

Identifiable Facts

There are some facts which have emerged out of this investigation which seem to be indisputable.

1. Apparently very large numbers of teachers, if not almost all teachers, experience the transition period into teaching as the most difficult aspect of their career and even as one of trauma.
2. The transition period is characterized by fear, anxiety, feelings of isolation and loneliness. Little is known about these feelings or their effects.
3. Almost all teachers report that they went through this period "on their own." They had little or no help available, and found help only through their own initiative. They typically sought out some other teacher in whom they could confide, but the number who did so is small; the rest muddle through.
4. Existing preparation programs do not seem to prepare teachers adequately for this initial period. Internships, however,

place teachers in transition-like situations where they can be supervised more carefully. Therefore internships perform an induction function, but they are also preservice programs.

5. The British schemes for induction are assistance programs for teachers during the transition phase. The tested models acclimate the teacher to the school. The most effective models seem to be those in which direct help can be provided to each teacher on the specific problems he or she is having.

FACTS PLUS INFERENCES

1. Teachers appear to go through a series of phases or stages in this transition period. At each phase they confront a different type of problem. In the earliest phases the teacher has to learn to manage and organize instruction. At later phases the teacher learns to evaluate pupils, relate to parents, and to cope with being evaluated by the school administration.
2. It is likely that problems which are not solved at one stage create enduring effects which carry over into other stages, so that the teacher's effectiveness and confidence progressively deteriorate.
3. There is probably a strong relationship between how the teacher passes through the transition period and how likely they are to progress professionally to higher levels of competence and endeavor.

UNKNOWNNS

1. Very little is known about the actual dynamics of this transition stage either in terms of the details of what it is like or how the teachers go through it or what helps them to master it.
2. Very little evaluative information is available which demonstrates that any of the existing forms of teacher preparation programs best prepares a teacher for this transition period and for continued professional growth.

Unanswered Questions

On three major questions we have practically no real information:

- (1) What is the precise nature and character of the problems teachers experience during the transition period, and how extensive and severe are they?
- (2) What determines whether these problems will develop or what will ameliorate or facilitate rapid solution of them?
- (3) What kinds of training or assistance programs have powerful effects on preventing, alleviating, or facilitating the solution of these problems?

Needed Research and Evaluation

We have proposed a general strategy for research and evaluation to answer the three questions we have just listed. We propose a first stage of intensive, in-depth studies of the problems of beginning teachers, studies which would be carried out by following a sample from one or

more cohorts of beginning teachers from the time when they have secured a teaching position until shortly after the end of the first year of teaching. (Other variations on this design extend it further in time in both directions.)

We propose a second stage of research in which some rigorous experiments are conducted which test solutions for these problems--programs or services. We recommend that these solutions be organized primarily by whether they are directed towards prevention of the problem or assistance to the teacher while it is occurring. We need to know what helps best and when the help should be given. We need relatively simple solutions, readily applied, and available to all beginning teachers. Controlled and systematic experimentation should help find such solutions.

We need to know how experienced teachers can be used in programs for beginning teachers. What role will they play? Will they need to be trained, and if so, by whom? What status should be assigned to them? What compensation should they receive?

What functions can be carried out by Teacher Centers? By in-service programs? By colleges and universities?

What agencies should assume which responsibilities for program development? For training? For monitoring? For short-term and long-term assistance? For evaluation?

These questions can be answered by policy studies which should be begun when or before the research proposed is undertaken.

Our goal ought to be to reduce to the absolute minimum the amount of trauma, pain, suffering, and floundering that too many beginning teachers

experience to their ultimate detriment. Beginning teachers are typically people in crisis. People in crisis need effective, efficient help. They need a tested solution directed at the true nature of their problems.

WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THE PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

The major source of data on the problems of beginning teachers is what beginning teachers themselves tell us about their problems. These data are reported in simple surveys in which beginning teachers have been asked to list their problems or to check off items in a list of possible problems. Frequently in such surveys questions have not been asked about when these problems occur, how long they persist, what affects their severity, how disruptive they are, their effects on the lives of the teachers, or how they were worked out. These gaps in the research literature show how little is known about the character, frequency and causes of the problems of beginning teachers.

It is, however, accurate to say that the literature mirrors how beginning teachers think and feel about and remember this period in their lives. It was one of intense anxiety, even of panic. Their perceptions of it were distorted by this anxiety, and their judgments about what was happening to them were and perhaps still are unreliable. But the fear and insecurity show through the checks on the list of "problems." "Discipline problems" conveys it all in the only way we permit teachers to describe these days when we "research them."^{*}

We spoke to as many teachers as we could about their transitions into teaching. We learned in these talks what lay behind the checkmarks

* Beginning teachers usually report coping with discipline problems as their major problem. The metric varies from study to study; rank-ordering and rating are the most common responses elicited. "Frequency of Problem" is usually a rating, not a count. Despite these variations, "Discipline Problems" and "Management Problems" usually are ranked first and rated highest in terms of severity.

opposite "Discipline Problems" and "Management." We also found that, as in the formal studies, they described their experiences in remarkably similar ways. We have used what we learned in these talks to describe in richer detail what probably happens to teachers as they begin to teach.

We also asked about those things which were unreported--the severity and duration of problems, whether they had help, how they managed. We report here what the literature says and does not say and what some teachers told us. The analysis of the literature tells us what we know formally and scientifically; what teachers have told us suggests what we might learn and what might be true.

The Duration of Beginners' Problems

We know little about how problems are solved by beginning teachers, and we are therefore also ignorant about the duration of their problems. Some critical problems, such as managing classes well, are not solved by some beginning teachers, who then either develop an ineffective teaching style or are overwhelmed by their problems and leave the profession. Some problems persist, such as poor organization of instruction. Some are apparently solved easily; others, for some teachers, require months to solve.

Is it true that most teachers have adopted a basic teaching style within the first six months? Is the first year usually how long it takes to feel moderately secure? Is it two or three years before a teacher feels like a teacher? (These statements have been made by teachers.)

Can these time spans be changed? If it takes one or two years for a teacher to feel secure in teaching, is this so inevitably, or could the period be shortened?

Changes in Beginning Teachers As They Solve Problems

Do beginning teachers become more effective, more inventive, more willing to use a variety of teaching strategies as they work out how to manage a class or cope with "discipline problems?" We expect them to be more assured and more aware of their ability to use their skills. We do not know but suspect that there is a progressive enlarging of perception and understanding as beginning teachers work through their problems. But some teachers' perceptions of possibilities do not expand; they "solve" a management problem but never see other instructional problems or possibilities. As beginning teachers work through their problems, do they see problems not previously perceived? Are they more effective in solving these "new" problems? Why do some teachers solve a problem but then not move to a new stage of professional development or skill?

Differences Among Beginning Teachers in How They Solve Their Problems

Some teachers find help in these matters; others seem to be very dependent on being led to solutions. Some are more adaptive and flexible, others are more rigid. Again we must report that the literature on how such differences affect initial induction into the profession is non-existent. We do not know whether unique personal characteristics are required to adapt quickly to the problems facing new teachers.

What Helps A Beginning Teacher

We expect that whether or not the beginning teacher has supportive help available will influence the development of this teacher. But

almost nothing is known about how such systems and programs directly influence the development of the beginning teacher. There is, however, considerable opinion on this subject.

There is much comment among teachers themselves that evaluative-type help is not effective and may be detrimental. There seems to be good reason to believe that this is so but objective data on this point are nonexistent. Administrators, however, appear convinced that supervisory assistance from principals or assistant principals must be given to beginning teachers. Some states and districts require a specific number of visits to the beginning teacher by an administrator who will evaluate this teacher (e.g., New Jersey and the Miami-Dade school system).

The programmatic activity described in this report was designed to help teachers solve these initial problems. We evaluate these efforts later and speculate on a number of potentially influential features of these programs. An effective program for helping most beginners can be put together from state-of-the-art components of these programs.

THE TRANSITION PERIOD: DEVELOPMENTAL CHANGE,
LEARNING NEW SKILLS OR COPING?

Not only are the facts about beginning teachers few but theories, models and paradigms of the processes of change during the transition period have not been developed nor applied from available conceptual schemas. The absence of conceptual analysis means that proposals and programs for preparing teachers for or assisting them during the transition period are frequently ad hoc arrangements, or foolish notions, or compromises of viewpoints arranged for political reasons.

Two facts are obvious. One of these is that teachers go through some kind of a sequence of problems which they learn to solve. The other is that these problems occur for different reasons. Some are inherent in the tasks of teaching. Some arise in the sequence of events which occur routinely in most schools. Others are related to differences among teachers in personality and skill.

Are there developmental stages through which the beginning teacher moves? There are reasons to believe this may be the case, mainly because teachers appear to improve progressively, become more sophisticated in method and attitude, and seem to "mature" as teachers. But progressive change is not necessarily conclusive evidence of developmental change. A person may learn different aspects of a skill at different times and if, as is frequently the case, the person learns the simpler aspects first, he appears to mature in the skill. It is an inductive leap, however, to conclude that what has been observed is evidence for ontogenetic or some other form of deterministic development.

Learning theory may account for these changes. From the perspective of this theory these changes would be the products of experiences in which a teacher had attempted a specific teaching behavior (or performance) and was rewarded (reinforced) in some way for this attempt. Or such changes may be the products of imitating experienced teachers. If the behavior is repeated and reinforced, it will become part of the teacher's repertoire of teaching behaviors. The theory accounts for change in teaching skill by describing it as a series of successive acquisitions.

Adaptation theory may also account for changes in teaching style. A person "adapts" previously learned behaviors to new situations for which the person has not been directly prepared by education or training. The theory accounts for the adaptation by changes in the person's perceptions of a situation; this change may be as simple as perceiving what has not been seen before or an extended process of testing ways of acting in the new situation until a "fit" is found, a "fit" which requires reorganizing perceptions and cognitions.

Developmental theory postulates a deterministic evolutionary process as the means by which change occurs; learning theory, acquisition processes; and adaptation theory, reorganization processes.

The question is, which theory, developmental theory, a theory of adaptation or coping, or a learning theory, or some combination or integration of them best accounts for such facts as we have about how teachers change as they learn to teach.

It seems very likely that any explanation of why beginning teachers have problems, or why and how some of them solve these problems well or

poorly will use an amalgam of different theoretical explanations. If such is the case, then we need to be looking for both different facts and many more facts than we now have. It is relatively easy to document the lack of skill of beginning teachers in managing classes, but there is practically no documentation on how they cope with anxiety or how and why they have chosen certain ways of teaching, or how they think about effectiveness, what their goals for instruction are, or how they evaluate their own performance, or how they feel about themselves as teachers.

Such facts are necessary to test the power of these different theories of change for explaining what happens to beginning teachers during this transition period.¹³ We need this understanding to decide when and what kinds of training and assistance to provide them so that they will pass through this period successfully.

How Coping With the Problems of Transition Affects Teachers

Perhaps the aspect of the problems of beginning teachers which is least understood and has received practically no formal investigative

¹³ Two theoretical approaches have been used to study teachers in preparation. Both demonstrated considerable merit, but no attempt has been made to integrate them or to pit one against another in an explanatory contest, nor has the limits of either theory been tested in this work.

For a developmental theory approach, see Fuller, F. Concerns of teachers: A developmental conceptualization. American Educational Research Journal, 1969, 6, 207-226.

For a learning theory approach, see McDonald, F. J., & Allen, D. W., Training effects of feedback and modeling procedures on teaching performance. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, 1967.

For an adaptation point of view, see Combs, A. Teacher education: A problem in becoming. In E. B. Smith, H. Olsen, P. Johnson, & C. Barbour (Eds.), Partnership in Teacher Education. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and The Association for Student Teaching, 1966.

analysis is the way in which the solution or the failure to solve certain problems creates a dynamic of success or failure. As one studies the surveys of the problems of beginning teachers, it is all too easy to think of these problems as if they were independent entities. We do not know whether we are hearing about interconnected and interrelated problems which bear little relation to each other. We do not know how critical these problems are except in a very general way.

It may be that if a teacher solves a certain problem, other problems never occur. Or it may be that if a teacher has one particular kind of problem which is not solved, the failure to solve this problem may lead to other problems which if the teacher in turn does not solve, generates further problems.

SYSTEM FOR CLASSIFYING BEGINNING TEACHERS' PROBLEMS

This matrix is offered as a way of thinking about and studying the problems of beginning teachers which will lead easily to decisions about the best ways to help them. The two dimensions focus attention on whether the teacher causes the problem and can do something about it whoever causes it. It is an easy step from there to devising how to help with the different kinds of problems.

We do not know whether all the problems of beginning teachers can be classified in this matrix. Those we know about seem to fit; and those which must be argued about to fit them in reveal in this their complexity and the simplicity of our conceptions--which is what a classificatory system ought to do for us.

THE TASKS AND PROBLEMS OF THE FIRST YEAR

The problems of beginning teachers seem to occur in predictable stages, though this sequence has never been carefully traced out, and in describing it we are relying on detailed and lengthy talks with a small number of experienced teachers, as well as some literature. What we offer in the following sections is an outline of a sequence of problems which we think beginning teachers confront. It ought to be treated as a hypothesis. It is partly the product of inductive inferences and partly the product of analysis.

The beginning teacher has to enter the school and become a member of the staff and a functioning teacher. The beginner receives an assignment to a school and within a school to classes. Everything else

about the school has to be learned. The beginner starts with a list of what do I teach?", "where do I find...?", "where is...", "what should I do when...?", "who do I ask...?", "what is...?"

The beginner must partially master three tasks before school begins. He or she must learn in detail what is to be taught; the school rules and policies; and how the teachers and administrators work with each other. These tasks cannot be fully mastered before school begins. They are the sources of problems.

Phase I - The Beginning of School

These problems arise from a set of instructional and administrative tasks, which the teacher has to perform to teach. Some must be mastered as soon as possible. Some are recurrent. Some are interdependent, some are not. They are the locus of the problems which beginners have.

Learning About What is to be Taught

The beginning teacher has two immediate instructional problems. First, what subject matter is to be covered. Some schools provide curriculum guides, lists of objectives, or outlines of what is to be taught; some do not. Without guidance the beginning teacher must make all the decisions about what to teach.

The other problem is how to present the content of instruction. The beginning teacher is concerned about the appropriate level of instruction,

how to make the content interesting, and how to sustain this interest.¹⁴ They have had at most one or two courses in methods in the subject and very little experience in applying these methods.¹⁵ Most beginners do not know how to prepare a sequence of lessons; some do not know how to prepare a lesson; practically all do not know how to prepare an interesting or challenging lesson.

It seems from all the reports that beginning teachers do not know how to prepare the substance of instruction efficiently and effectively. They need to know what to prepare. They need to know how to prepare it. They need time for this preparation. Attempting to prepare in depth and thoroughly while learning about the school and learning about teaching is imposing an unnecessary burden on the beginning teacher.

Learning About School Rules and Policies¹⁶

Most school districts have orientation programs and the district's administrators meet with teachers before the beginning of school. These

¹⁴ Ryan, op. cit.

Miller, H. B. An analysis of empirically selected components of pressure, difficulty, and satisfaction reported by beginning secondary school intern teachers. Doctoral dissertation, Temple University, 1970. (University Microfilms International, No. 71-10, 829.)

¹⁵ The methods courses are criticized by teachers in every study which allowed them to offer their own list of problems or which listed kinds of courses to be evaluated. The criticisms range from "useless" to "not much help." Some will say that these courses were useful. But most offer criticisms. This result has appeared in studies for decades. See Dropkin (1963), Gaede (1978).

¹⁶ The ideas in this section are drawn from talks with teachers and observations of beginning teachers. The literature reveals no probes of this problem.

general sessions usually cover personnel matters as well as the school-district goals. The teacher's principal may or may not have a handbook of rules and policies; he or she may or may not have a meeting with beginning or new teachers.

The beginning teacher at first is probably somewhat less concerned about the specific rules and policies than being prepared for the first classes. Their concerns about rules and policies are unfocussed. The experienced teacher knows that schools generally function much alike, knows what to ask about, knows where to look for variations or exceptions.

Remarkably little specific information is given to teachers on such matters in a prepared, systematic way. They learn in the beginning by being told about a few things, by asking questions and by making mistakes.

It seems obvious how to inform beginning teachers about the formal rules. The principal or assistant principal can talk with each beginning teacher. The beginning teachers can be assigned to a senior teacher who would inform them about the rules and regulations. Meetings can be held on specific topics.

There is an informal social system in each school which must also be learned about. The beginning teacher is not likely to learn about it very easily or quickly.

Training in the skills of learning about informal systems is state-of-the-art knowledge.¹⁷ More attention could be given to acquiring these

¹⁷ The British Induction Schemes seem to perform this function well. The mentor assigned to each beginner tells the beginner what they need to know, and answers their questions. Beginners were notably satisfied with this aspect of the mentor's role. See Bolam, 1979; Julius, 1976.

skills in teacher-preparation programs.¹⁸

Learning About "Whereabouts"

The beginning teacher must learn about a variety of locations of places, persons, equipment. People who are knowledgeable about their school may have forgotten what it was like to be there for the first time. But a beginning teacher may literally be lost in a building. She may not know where to go for supplies; where to send students; who provides what kind of help. He may not even know the time-honored rule, "when in doubt, ask the custodian."

The Initial Problems

The beginning teacher has to get ready to teach and to work in a specific school building with colleagues and administrators. These needs are pressing. If not met, the teacher will get off to a poor start, will feel harassed, and may make embarrassing mistakes.

¹⁸ The course in Educational Sociology taught to interns at Stanford seems to be particularly good at this training. Interns have reported its usefulness for understanding the social system of a school. Professor Elizabeth Cohen has taught the course for almost two decades and worked closely with the interns. This experience illuminates the sound and basic knowledge about social systems which is offered to teachers.

In most other programs it was assumed that learning this system was particularistic, and had to be done in the school in which you were teaching. The learning was happenstance and was left entirely to the faculty of the school. School district programs for beginners do not address the beginner's need to learn about the informal social system of the schools. Perhaps they never will; one suspects that the administration views the informal system as the enemy of the formal.

These initial problems are of two kinds, one, how to get ready for the first day, and the other, how to get through the actual day itself. It is unlikely that the teacher is visualizing and anticipating many long-term problems at this time.

Beginning teachers at the start of school seem to have two kinds of disparate expectations about their first day of teaching.¹⁹ They are afraid of what is likely to happen: specifically that they will lose control of the class, will not interest students, will arouse negative attitudes; that they will be asked questions they cannot answer; that they will lose track of where they are; that they will be confounded and confused. Obviously such fears are fears of the unknown, fears arising from unsureness about one's self and one's competence, and from lack of experience with the events about to be met.

The other view of the first day is a completely unrealistic one. The teacher anticipates a class which exists rarely if at all -- an enthusiastic, interested group, eager to learn from the teacher, and well prepared for what the teacher is about to present to them. Obviously this lack of realism leads to difficulties and is certain to lead to disappointment and frustration.

This lack of realism is a problem to which beginning teachers refer repeatedly. They use the term "expectations". They say that their

¹⁹ Rubin, D. On being inducted: A beginning teacher reflects. NASSP Bulletin, 1968, 52, 85-95. (ED 024 621)

Ryan, 1970, op. cit.

Tisher, R. (Ed.) The induction of beginning teachers in Australia. Melbourne, Australia, Monash University, 1978.

expectations were unrealistic or idealistic or too theoretical. They use a variety of synonyms all of which mean that they misperceived what their students were like; but the labels tell us nothing about why they held these misperceptions. This problem is a puzzling one.

Feelings About Their Work

Ryan's book of diaries of beginning teachers gives us a very good idea of what a small sample of teachers were thinking and feeling as they began their first year of teaching.²⁰ Several important tasks of beginning to teach cause anxiety and fear.²¹

Anxiety about job-performance: The most important of these is the beginning teachers' concerns about their job-security. They are beginning a new job. They know they will be evaluated in this job. But they may have no idea of how well they are doing. Beginning teachers like other teachers are isolated during most of the school day and must determine for themselves how well they are doing. If teaching does not seem to be going well, the beginner fears for his job.

²⁰ Ryan, op cit. We need much more information about the feelings and thoughts of beginning teachers at the start of school in their first year of teaching. We cite this book frequently because it conveys in an eminently readable form what it is like to be a beginning teacher.

See also Miller, 1970, op. cit.

²¹ See studies previously cited, footnotes 14 and 15.

Taylor, J. K., & Dale, I. K. A survey of teachers in their first year of service. Bristol, England: University of Bristol School of Education, 1971.

Fear of immediate failure in teaching: Most beginning teachers seem to be filled with dread that what they will lose control of their classes. They seem to be projecting potential disaster as they anticipate the beginning of teaching.

Feelings of isolation: Beginning teachers most likely do not know any of the staff of the school in which they begin teaching, and they may also be new in the community. This social isolation makes adaptation to a new job more difficult. The beginning teacher has no one to turn to for advice or consolation except other teachers whom he or she does not know well or at all.

We know little about the effects of this isolation on the beginning teacher. The experience may be so common and has been survived by so many people that its significance is underrated. Certainly there is evidence of a general social isolation of teachers produced by the nature of their professional work and by how it is organized. Many observers of teaching have pointed out that teachers interact most of the day with young people or children and rarely have an opportunity to interact with other adults. (Lortie, 1975.) The feelings of isolation are exacerbated for the beginning teacher because they know no one or no one to whom they can confide their feelings.

Feelings of Intense Anxiety

Beginning teachers have told us of vomiting before class in the morning; others speak of the tenseness which they feel; most all describe the great fatigue they experience.

When does this fear and anxiety become so debilitating that the beginning teacher is ineffective and incapable of conducting the most ordinary aspects of instruction and managing classes? We know very little about the origins of this "first-day" anxiety other than that the first day of class is seen as a particularly threatening event. The fear and anxiety associated with it seems to be much greater than "stage-fright."

Those who lack confidence in their ability to cope with teaching, who are panicked by it, and who are living on the edge of terror create special problems for themselves. We know of no simple solution for ameliorating the effects of these personal reactions. We know that many people are able to master them and to become effective teachers. Others, however, react so that they exacerbate their fear and eventually fail in teaching. Certainly events which are perceived in this manner are significant life events, but very little attention has been paid in previous research to this emotional trauma and its many ramifications in the life of the teacher.

What We Need to Know

Two aspects of the life of the beginning teacher need descriptive research and analysis. One of these is the character of the stressful situation which is the first day of teaching. The other, how all these different events--the new school and community, the lack of friends, the lack of specific preparation in the curriculum--influence each other, and which ones are most strongly influence the teacher's subsequent effectiveness. Judgments about the kinds of help a beginning teacher needs

depend upon understanding how various elements in the life of the beginning teacher affect teaching effectiveness.

Some of the beginning teachers' floundering is due to lack of adequate preparation in the fundamentals of instruction. Some of it is due to administrative misassignment and failure to inform the beginners about the curriculum, policies and rules. Some of it is due to the lack of adequate support at the time that they begin to teach — support in the form of prescriptive advice on how to cope with certain kinds of problems in the classes in the school. But some of the explanation will be found in the characteristics of the individuals who are beginning teachers. About these latter aspects we know the least. At present we do not have sufficient data to weight these factors appropriately or to measure their interdependencies and interactions.

Phase II - The First Weeks of School

The first week of school is a critical stage in the transition period. Each successive day may compound and complicate the problems of the first day. The teacher has to be prepared for the second day of the week, and the third day, and the second week of school. A teacher with a poor sense of direction, of structure, of organization is going to run into serious problems even if they have managed to be ready for the first day.

A certain amount of testing of the teacher goes on in these early days of teaching. The pupils assess whether the teacher is serious about the rules he or she has set, whether he will keep his word, whether she will back up her threats, whether or not the routines will be enforced.

Serious mistakes in management tend to compound the teacher's difficulties and are not always easily remedied as they accumulate.

The first and second week of school probably constitutes a distinctive phase, different from the emotional high of the first day of classes. Teachers pointed to its distinctive characteristics. We have chosen to identify it as a separate phase because its problems are different than those of the first day of school, and they are not predictable or explainable solely in terms of what has happened on the first day.

Problems of the First Weeks of School

Many of the problems of these first weeks are the perennial problems of teaching which have to be solved each year as the teacher meets new groups of students. Other problems occur only because the beginning teacher is a beginner. But whatever category these problems may fall into they are problems which create difficulties for most teachers, and extraordinary ones for some, particularly the inexperienced teacher.

Instructional problems: The beginning teacher experiences in these weeks the complexities of extensive planning. He or she might get through the first week on a day-by-day basis, but beyond the first week the teacher must at least do week-to-week planning. They may have to learn content which they do not know. They have to prepare instructional materials.

Somewhere in this first month the beginning teacher will meet parents in an open-house or in conferences. The teacher is concerned about the impression she will make on parents, her ability to inspire their confidence, whether her "newness" will be showing, and whether the parents are likely to be cooperative and supportive. The beginning

teacher has no idea how parents act in such situations, or if they will even show up for the occasion. These occasions are another source of stress and anxiety and a test of one's ability to cope with the unknown.

Reactions and Feelings: As far as we can determine the kinds of fears and anxieties which characterize the beginning of school persist during this time. The beginning teacher knows that each day is potentially a source of problems in management, and during each day the teacher has to be prepared to conduct the class.

Phase Two, if all goes reasonably well, is a transitional stage from the overwhelming fear and anxiety of the first days of school into a way of teaching for the year. By the end of the first month of school beginning teachers have established some form of control over the class. They have learned the names of their pupils, some basic information about each pupil, and may have met their parents. They will have created impressions of the kind of person and teacher they are. They will have learned the basic rules of the school, and will be able to get themselves around it. Failure to reach these points leads to continuing problems and recurrent disasters.

Phase III - The First Experiences Of Evaluating Pupils

Somewhere between the end of September and Thanksgiving the beginning teacher will have to engage in major evaluative activity. In the elementary school this may be simply collecting information about pupils from a variety of sources such as the worksheets that the pupils have completed or from simple tests they have taken or from the teacher's observations

of them. In the secondary schools this usually involves giving tests which the beginning teacher has to construct, and the grading of homework and correcting of reports and papers. The beginning teacher must make some kind of summary evaluative statement about each pupil, and the secondary teacher will have to prepare grades.

This first confrontation with the evaluative role presents beginning teachers with two problems, one technical and the other psychological. The technical problem is one of accumulating reliable information from which they can make a valid judgment which they can support when they have made it.

The psychological problem is in part that of becoming an evaluator of another person. The teacher may have established good working relations with the pupils, and now fears that these relations will be jeopardized when she or he has to give grades or make summary judgments.

The other component of this psychological problem is that these teachers must be able to "defend" their evaluative judgments. The parents will be calling or coming to the school about the grades, and the pupils themselves will raise questions about them. The administration may question some of the grades. The beginning teachers' judgment is exposed to critical scrutiny, and the process, no matter how handled, will inevitably cause anxiety and insecurity.

The beginning teacher will have to talk to parents about their children's performance. This exposes the teacher to scrutiny. Parents may react hostilely or indifferently. They may be cooperative or uncooperative. Their pupils may know their parents defended them or were punished

because of the evaluative report. The parents may go to the principal and complain about them. The parents may want them to change the grades. The parents may appeal to their sympathies in a variety of ways or give them information about the family situation which they will not know how to use very well.

Almost all beginning teachers state that they are poorly prepared to handle situations involving parents. As far as we can determine very little if any formal training is given in this respect (opportunities to work with parents do occur in internship programs).

Another major problem of this third phase of the beginners' transition is that they will be observed and evaluated. The principal of the school usually will get in to see a new teacher relatively early in the year and in fact may be required to do so by district policy. This occasion is likely to be highly threatening to the beginning teacher.²²

They of course have had no experience with how to interact with the principal in this evaluation. Should they argue with him or her if they disagree? How do they accept the evaluation? Will it be helpful? Will the principal give them something to do that they will not be able to do? They may well be devastated by the results of this first interaction with the principal in an evaluative observation. They may be encouraged. They may be given clear directions or vague directions about what they ought to do to improve.

²²This occasion is not described in the literature, but teachers describe it as a significant event when asked about these early months. Our informants described it with considerable emotion.

Phase IV - Stabilizing in Teaching

The first three months of teaching are crammed with new experiences. The beginner learns to solve the problems of these early months. He finds things which "work for him." He may be disillusioned but he is more realistic.

The beginner has survived. Her sense of competence is growing. She is better prepared, better organized; knows how to manage the class most of the time. The fear and anxiety is not as intense as it was.²³

This fourth phase is characterized by the anxieties and stresses associated with evaluating and being evaluated, and with beginning concerns about how to manage instruction more effectively. Beginning teachers are acutely aware of their lack of skill in teaching, of their lack of knowledge about what is to be taught.

They now become very aware that each teacher works largely in isolation. They have experienced a number of days during which they have had little time to spend with other teachers. No one may have even come to their classroom except on minor errands. They have existed in their classroom with the students they teach, the rest of the world apparently unaware of their fears, or even of their success in coping with the first days of teaching.

²³ Those beginners who have not made these modest improvements are usually in worse trouble than they were in the first week. Their classes may be out of control; they are badly prepared each day; their teaching is disorganized.

Internship programs provide numerous opportunities to observe such teachers. It is the experience of the supervisors in and directors of intern programs that beginners who have not transited successfully through the first two stages are in serious trouble by October. Some have dropped out of teaching by then. Others badly need help, and for some, help is ineffective.

They also experience how the teaching staff moves out of the school into their homes or other jobs after school; that they are not available to talk to about teaching. They have experienced the lunch hours when other teachers have been complaining about students or administrators. The teachers' fears may have been exacerbated by these conversations.

Beginning teachers are afraid to reveal their weaknesses in teaching. If a teacher, beginner or experienced, is having difficulties managing a class, the teacher does not want other teachers or the administration to know it. This fear of talking to others heightens the sense of isolation and obviously deprives teachers of help which they might obtain. The beginner is experiencing what teaching as a life is like.

We think that one of the major consequences of these experiences is a narrowing of interest in and a constricting of exploration of methods and techniques of teaching. The beginning teacher focusses on what is necessary to "get the job done"—manage the class, prepare lessons, grade papers, teach each lesson. Effectiveness means doing these things reasonably well, without getting into trouble; it means being accepted, even liked, by the students. The teaching practices which seem to produce these ends merge into a style, which whatever its other merits, works for the beginner. This is his style, and he will rationalize it and ignore its limitations.

This is the nature of change during this fifth phase of the transition period for most teachers. They may have become moderately effective. They may be mediocre or barely competent. Some, because of their intelligence, or training, or willingness to take risks, or their imagination

try the atypical practice; they become highly effective in one or more ways. These are differences among beginning teachers as this fifth phase slips into ensuing days and weeks. But most, because they have survived a major crisis, will continue to teach as they are teaching by Christmas.²⁴

We think the beginning teachers become less open to development after these experiences of the first three months of teaching--the transition period--than they were before. Certainly their language expresses this idea. They criticize the lack of practical experience which they had before teaching. They point out what they had to learn by themselves. They are in many cases contemptuous of prior training, calling it too theoretical, an attitude which generalizes much the college has to offer and to inservice education.

But a number of teachers, percentages unknown, continue to grow professionally. Whether these are teachers who pass through the transition period in a different way than most teachers is also unknown. It is a reasonable hypothesis that the kind of person who grows over time has characteristics which may have made the mastery of the transition period an easier task, or they may have characteristics which enabled them to extract the maximum benefit from the period of teacher preparation. Or, they may have learned much from the transition into teaching even if it was difficult. Many of these teachers are more than competent; they

²⁴ Needless to say the evidence for this "fact" is what numerous people, teachers and teacher educators say. There is no scientific evidence for or against the assertion. There is, however, little reason to doubt its validity.

become excellent or superior. A study of them might well illuminate the problems of the transition period in ways more productive than would a study of its failures.

When numbering the pages, 47
was inadvertently omitted.

IDEAS AND APPROACHES TO SOLVING
THE PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

Solutions to the problems of beginning teachers take three different forms. One form is the traditional teacher preparation program prior to entrance into teaching. A second is to conduct the preparation of the teacher simultaneously with the transition into teaching. The third is to prepare the teacher prior to the transition and to provide support, guidance and instruction during the transition period.

Of these three forms, the first is by far the most common; it is the traditional program of preservice teacher preparation. The second form is the internship which usually follows an undergraduate degree in which pedagogical training may or may not have been taken. The third form is a program in which the beginning teacher is assigned to an experienced teacher available for advice and guidance. There are variations on each of these major types which we will describe as we discuss each of them.

We simply do not know which of these three modalities of preparation ought to be adopted on the basis of the results which it produces; or whether some parts of any of these forms are more effective for specific purposes than parts of the other programs. Nor do we know whether one type of program consistently produces certain kinds of effects, whereas another program produces other kinds of effects.²⁵

²⁵There have been few systematic comparisons of these types of programs. See Lindauer, B. J., 1974. There have been evaluations of individual programs of one type; see, for example, Blackburn, 1975; Corman, 1964,

We describe and discuss here only the internship and induction programs because the purposes of this study were the beginning teacher at the moments of beginning. But the effects of conventional preparation programs during the transition program should be studied in any comprehensive study of the beginning. Unfortunately we are left with the evaluations of the beginners themselves about these programs. They are mostly negative.

The Solution of Experiencing the Transition Period

While Preparing to Teach: The Internship

The most striking feature of the internship is the radical difference between the kind of practical experience which it provides and the experience provided in the conventional program. Most people assume that the internship, because of this characteristic, is a better means of preparing teachers for all of their teaching problems.

The teaching internship has been tried at different points in time in the last 75 years, and had a recent revival through the '60's and early '70's. Such programs are sometimes compared in less than a totally satisfying way to what are euphemistically called "traditional" programs, but the results of such comparisons are inconclusive. Reality is that both kinds of programs exist, some seem to be preferred by some trainees, other types of programs by other trainees; particular colleges and universities prefer one type rather than another.

Gibboney, 1979; Hite, 1968; Kehl, 1977; Marsh, 1974, Murphy, 1977. There have also been thoughtful analyses of the experience with particular programs; see, Edelfelt, 1974; for surveys of the reflections of participants, see Prince, 1976; for reflective looking back of program directors, see Robinson, 1976.

There are variations which are combinations of these two major types. In some intern programs, such as the one at Temple University, the internship begins with an intensive summer experience in which the intern teaches only part of a teaching assignment, and during which he or she is given intensive training and extensive supervision and counseling. This initial summer experience is followed in the fall by a full teaching assignment during which some academic work is taken in an evening course, and then is followed by a second year in which the intern is carrying a full teaching assignment and completing the academic and professional program.²⁸

The three kinds of intern programs which will be described in the following pages, all of them fifth-year programs, the Temple program, the Oregon program, and the Stanford program, differ in the degree of immersion in practical experience at each stage of the program. The Stanford program is the most gradual form of induction. It begins with a summer experience in which the teaching experience is simulated in microteaching sessions. This experience is followed by a half-time teaching assignment during a full academic year. The Oregon program begins with the induction through student teaching, and then is followed by a year of full-time teaching. The Temple program from the beginning provides real classroom experiences as the core of the program.

Three views govern the decision either to induct an intern gradually into teaching or to move him or her rapidly into a regular teaching assignment. One view is that the interns would be overwhelmed by the initial teaching experience and would not survive it. Another is that

²⁸ See the description of this program in the following pages.

interns need time to acquire some basic skills which are better learned progressively. A third view, held at Stanford for example, is that it is important for the interns' long-term development to integrate theory and practice during the training period; therefore a mix of practice and academic work is to be preferred.

We studied three internship-type programs in depth. These programs are described at length in Volume II of this series. The methods of study, the principles and rules used to select the programs, materials collected and an analytic evaluation of each program are also described in that volume. We present here a summary description of each of them.

These programs were chosen primarily because they had been in operation for two or more decades, were recognized as "successful," had large numbers of graduates, and differed from each other in interesting and significant ways. Each functioned in a major university, two private and one public. Each university had substantial resources for conducting the programs (by their lights not enough to do all they wanted to do). These are solid, "blue-chip" programs (though the Stanford program appeared to be in decline).

An internship program conducted independently of a university does not exist. The forms which internships have taken have been largely determined by this relation to higher education. New York State is debating whether its legislated internship should be under the control of universities, but an alternate does not exist as yet in practice. The Georgia program is sometimes called an internship, but it is regular teaching supplemented with evaluation and additional training when

required. It is more like the British induction programs than the internship as it is known in the United States.

It may be useful to know that almost any teaching done prior to final and full certification may be called an internship. But insofar as there is a definition of an internship, it includes at least half-time teaching over no less than five or six months with full responsibility assigned to the interns for the groups or classes which they teach.²⁹

The internships described here are post-baccalaureate programs. Internships which are part of the undergraduate program have been tried.³⁰ One of the knottier problems has been to fit all the requirements for a degree, practicum experience and a substantial internship into the four-year undergraduate program.

Two facts seem obvious to the observer of this scene. All sorts of forms and structures have been tried and rationalized either before or after they were tried. Most programs are clearly compromises in the interests of economy or time or because resources are limited or because faculties will support the compromise.

The other fact is that the internship is not a significant feature of teacher education. There are only a few such programs in existence. There is no groundswell, no movement for the internship despite the public clamor about the state of teaching and education. Many agree that

²⁹ There is much arguing and quibbling about what an internship "is".

³⁰ Sources of information on these variations can be found in Simon, R., in McDonald, F. and Elias, P., Study of induction programs for beginning teachers, Volume IV. Princeton, NJ, Educational Testing Service, 1980.

a longer, more demanding period of preparation cannot be required in a profession where the initial economic rewards are meager, the status of the profession is low, and where the long-term prospects for advancement and reward are practically non-existent.

The three programs described here are remarkably free of compromises with their original ideas and ideals. They began with convictions about the kind of internship likely to be of most value to teachers in training. They have experimented with those ideas, but have not compromised them out of existence. They have persisted. Their programs work well.

The arguments about the forms of an internship or what it really "is" never seem to be resolved; nor do they seem to make much difference. An internship is more than practice teaching and less than regular teaching. There has to be enough teaching in it so that it is real work--so that the teacher has a job. The intern must also have full responsibility for the teaching, which means that he or she is responsible to the school administration for that teaching.

The Original Stanford Intern Program³¹

The Stanford University School of Education enjoys the reputation of being a forerunner in educational trends and research in education. It

³¹ A more detailed version of this description appears in Volume II. Also, the early history of the program was well known to one of the directors of this study (McDonald). McDonald also provided some of the evaluation of this early development of the program. This original program is described in some detail because it was representative of the ideas supported by the Ford Foundation. The program has changed considerably in recent years, and is about to enter a new era apparently quite different from the ones described here. The Temple Program, described later, is also one of these early programs supported by Ford.

is the home of the concept of microteaching as a means of acquiring teaching skills from feedback and modeling with the use of videotape equipment. The Stanford Intern Program represents an evolutionary internship model, continually evaluating and incorporating an expanding body of knowledge into the teacher education program.

The Stanford Teacher Education Program (STEP) was started in 1959 with a Ford Foundation grant designed to establish new graduate programs in teacher education. In 1964, Stanford's School of Education incorporated this experimental program into its regular program. Thirty-two interns currently are enrolled in the STEP program. The interns are prepared for the California Single Subject Teaching Credential. The credential authorizes the holder to teach the subject in his or her area of study at the secondary school level. STEP students also complete requirements for a Master of Arts degree in education.

Various ways of organizing and conducting the program were tried during its earliest years. A major revision occurred five years after the program was begun. The intern program and the regular secondary teacher training program had been operating side by side. There was considerable agreement about the kinds of problems which had developed and the program revisions that were necessary. The subsequent major program revision also was affected by the end of the foundation grant; considerably less money was available for continued program experimentation. About this time (1965) the faculty also began developing the Stanford Research and Development Center on Teaching. The R and D Center on Teaching began to use the revised intern program as the experimental program for the major research activities in the center.

The Initial Form of the Program

The Stanford internship is, and was, a preservice program; the interns typically have had no prior work in professional education or experience in teaching. The program, in its original design, attempted to break away from the usual course arrangements in preservice teacher education programs.

A General Seminar was developed to replace these courses which included on its staff an educational psychologist, an anthropologist, a psychiatrist, and two secondary school educators whose major interests were the curriculum and administration of secondary schools.

The interns were supposed to bring their problems to these classes, and the classes were then to be conducted around these problems. Seminars were called "problem-focused. This seminar was conducted once a week on alternate Monday evenings.

On other Monday evenings, the interns attended a Special Seminar in their subject area, conducted by the curriculum and instruction faculty. These generally resembled the traditional methods courses, but they too were problem-focused, and the interns were to bring their specific teaching problems in their subject to these seminars.

The third major component of the intern program was the practical experience interns were having in the schools. Each intern had been interviewed by the school administration, had been accepted as a teacher in a school, and was assigned a half-time teaching schedule. Interns were responsible for the classes which they taught. They were required to meet with the parents of their pupils, to organize their own instruction

and to evaluate their students. They were for all practical purposes "regular teachers", except that they had neither a full-time schedule nor responsibility for "after-school" activities.

The fourth component of the intern program was academic work. The interns usually took at least two courses in their academic subject areas. The concept underlying this requirement was that they were to move to an advanced level in their major field. This program began in September and continued through the following August. Upon completion, the interns received a master's degree and were certified to teach in the state of California.

The General Seminar quickly shifted to presentations by the faculty. The reason for this change, which was disappointing to the faculty, was that it turned out to be extraordinarily difficult to conduct problem-focused seminars. The interns did not always have the same or similar problems because they were not at the same stages of development of their skills, or because they were in markedly different teaching contexts. So a problem interesting to one group of interns frequently was of no interest to another. Another difficulty was that the interns themselves did not articulate their problems very well. A third difficulty was that the faculty had different perceptions than the interns of the nature of their problems.

The difficulties with the General Seminar reflected a basic problem in the organizational structure of the Stanford Intern Program. It had evolved into a two-tiered staff. On one level the graduate-student supervisors worked most closely with the interns, and in turn were most familiar with the interns' problems. At a second level was the faculty,

who, though greatly interested in what they were doing and in the problems of the interns, did not know these problems in the concrete. A predictable consequence was that the faculty were regarded as too theoretical. Even their best ideas did not get translated into practice because they were not sufficiently concrete, or because the faculty could not work out in the schools with the intern to apply them. A conflict was created between the practical needs and demands of the interns and the desires of the faculty to educate them beyond a particular problem so that a firm professional basis could be established for their development as effective teachers.

The second year of the program the intern year was begun in June rather than in September. This change was made so that the faculty would have time to develop certain concepts about teaching before the interns heard other ideas about teaching from their school supervisors. There were sufficient discrepancies between the point of view of these teachers and that of the faculty that the ideas offered by the faculty were rejected or held in abeyance to be used in some indefinite future. The faculty hoped to give the intern a perspective, a "set," during this summer program.

As time went on, it became apparent that the multidisciplinary team took turns teaching but were not developing an integrated approach. The interns were skeptical of the value of the ideas presented; these were treated as academic and remote from their "practical" concerns and needs.

These experiences with the General Seminar were not paralleled in the Special Seminar. The interns from the very beginning saw the Special

Seminar as more concrete and relevant to what they were doing. If they were teaching history, the Special Seminar in social studies covered how to teach history. Its topics seemed more germane than the topics being covered in the General Seminar.

The second major change in the program occurred when two of the staff members introduced the use of the videotape recorder. The videotape recorder enormously expanded the possibilities of using visual media as a training tool. About the same time, an experiment was conducted by one of the graduate students using a scaled down, structured teaching situation.

These developments led directly to the creation of what became the Stanford Microteaching Clinic. This Clinic trained the interns in basic teaching skills and prepared them for classroom teaching in the fall. The microteaching clinic was very popular with the interns.

Two faculty members conducted studies of the impact of feedback and modeling on the acquisition of teaching skills. The feedback and modeling were provided through videotapes and individual analytical sessions. As the experiments were completed, the skills were carried over into the microteaching clinic. Within a relatively short period of time, the summer sessions were reorganized around the microteaching clinic, and became a major component of it.

The favorable reactions of the interns to the Clinic again reveals the basic attitudes of an intern: they need to learn how to teach as quickly as possible and they want to spend most of their training time in the practical work of teaching; microteaching was a quick and safe way

to learn the basic skills, therefore, it was regarded as the most practical part of the program, except for the teaching during the year.

At the end of the first experimental period the "course work" component of the program was therefore reorganized somewhat along the lines of a traditional teacher-training program. Educational psychology was taught as a separate subject to the interns in two parts: 1) a summer session on instruction, and 2) a fall session on testing and evaluation. The interns through most of the year took a Special Seminar, which had become by this time a traditional methods course in their teaching subject. In the winter and spring quarters, seminars were added on the organization and administration of secondary school, and on the context of teaching. The philosophy and history of education were not included in the program because it was believed (on the basis of the first six years of program experience) that the interns were not ready for thinking about those broader issues of education; they were preoccupied with the basics of teaching.

Lessons to be Learned from the Changes in the Stanford Program

The basic conflict in intern programs is that of trying to prepare a beginning teacher for the immediate task of teaching as well as for a lifetime of teaching. It is not, however, resolved by an internship, and the changes in the Stanford program illustrate this basic difficulty. The Stanford faculty tried to lay a foundation for progressive professional development. They were considered "theoretical" because they were attempting to achieve this goal even though they also made great efforts to be practical.

The Stanford internship, like all internships, also faced the difficulties of preparing someone to teach while they are actually teaching. With little or no previous preparation, an intern can quickly get into trouble. The Stanford faculty tried to help interns by using the videotape recorder to follow them as they taught in hopes of detecting why problems were occurring. Such innovations did help some interns. But an intern could quickly be into real and serious trouble from which the program could not help him recover. Perhaps such problems can be avoided only if the intern is monitored more frequently than is feasible, or if the basic problems are dealt with thoroughly before full-time teaching begins.³²

The Stanford program had many aspects which could be readily adapted to assisting any beginning teacher. The microteaching clinic, the use of the videotape recorder during the teaching year, and the close supervision which the program provided created an environment of support for interns which could be used to create an effective program for a beginning teacher.

The Stanford Program Today³³

The following assumptions underlie the intern's experiences in the STEP:

³² See the following description of the Temple program where microteaching and real classroom experience are combined in a summer pre-teaching experience. See also Stanford's own revisions to provide a program of this kind, p. 69.

³³ Major sections of this report are taken from Stanford Teacher Education Program, Resident Supervisor's Handbook. School of Education, Stanford University, 1979-80 and Stanford Teacher Education Program Handbook, 1979-80.

- o A comprehensive understanding of the structure of the discipline to be taught is essential to teaching competence;
- o The classroom is a community with its own norms, values, roles, status positions, and structures;
- o Means are available for analyzing interactions among teachers, students, subject matter, and community which can and should be used;
- o The teacher must be a diagnostician and evaluator of the social system in which he or she is a participant;
- o Informal classroom group processes affect students' attitudes as well as their academic performance, and teachers can modify these group processes constructively;
- o Some spontaneous natural human tendencies, when given relatively free play, will facilitate a substantial amount of meaningful learning.

The Stanford Teacher Education Program places all of its students in either internship or student teaching positions during the regular school year. The teaching practicum takes two forms:

1. Internship: Responsibility for teaching two classes a day for the school year, plus at least one hour daily in school for preparation, observation, participation, conferences with students, resident supervisor, and other members of the staff.
2. Student Teaching: Limited responsibility for two classes for the school year, under the direct, continuous supervision of the teacher assigned to the class; the student's responsibilities for the class or classes will increase at the discretion of the assigned teacher and the school. But in no case is a student teacher to replace the teacher assigned to teach the class or classes. A student teacher is not credentialed by the State. Students spend at least one additional hour in the school daily for observation, preparation, conferences with students, the supervising teacher, and other members of the school staff.

The basic differences between interning and student teaching are three: rate of induction into full teaching responsibility, legal responsibility and stipend. The rate of induction into full teaching responsibility is accelerated in interning. Following the summer practicum,

interning requires assuming full teaching responsibility at the beginning of the school year. Student teaching permits a gradual induction into full teaching responsibility. Second, interning means assuming, from the beginning of the school year, full legal responsibility for the class. Student teaching means teaching in a class to which a regular member of the school faculty is assigned and for which that faculty member beginning of the school year, full legal responsibility for the class. Student teaching means teaching in a class to which a regular member of the school faculty is assigned and for which that faculty member carries full legal responsibility. Both positions, interning and student teaching, are training positions receiving supervision, advice, and counsel from a resident supervisor and a Stanford supervisor. Third, interning means being paid as a contractual trainee in a school district. Student teaching means being a trainee in a school district without stipend.³⁴

³⁴ The section of the California Education Code which applies to these training positions is 18193(d). "Professional preparation" means either (1) at least any nine semester units of professional education courses and one semester of approved full-time student teaching or its equivalent under the supervision of an approved college or university, or (2) an approved internship program of at least one year.

For student teaching, the Code requires "one semester of approved full-time student teaching or its equivalent." The usual teacher education program in California follows that requirement literally. That is, students are gradually inducted into full teaching responsibility in the five classes which is the typical teaching day. Students carry no other courses.

Stanford chose to take advantage of the phrase "or its equivalent." Instead of student teaching in five classes in one semester, Stanford requires student teaching in four classes spread over two semesters plus a summer practicum. Stanford proposed this "equivalent" to the California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing and it was accepted.

Program Design and Operation

The Stanford Program today resembles the original program, but some significant changes have been made. These are included in the following description of the program or it was when we visited it.

Goverance: The STEP Advisory Council is composed of representatives from each subject area group. It functions on behalf of the students, acting in an advisory capacity to the Program Director and the STEP staff. It is also concerned with professional and social activities for STEP students, teachers and interns. Meetings are held quarterly with the program director and the STEP coordinator.

The School of Education governs its programs through faculty-student committees. The relevant committee for STEP is Curriculum and Teacher Education. The STEP Subcommittee of the Curriculum and Teacher Education Committee is responsible for operational policy relative to STEP. From the STEP Advisory Board, two students are selected to be representatives on this subcommittee.

Costs to the Interns: Ordinarily, most interns are able to pay full-cost for two quarters of tuition and two quarters at half-cost tuition, but some interns needing or wishing to strengthen their background in an academic area of education may pay a third quarter of full tuition.³⁴ In summer, tuition is paid by the unit; in other quarters only full or half-tuition is allowed.

Intern Placements: When a principal indicates a need for interns, STEP interns' papers are sent to the principal for review. Candidates for the interviews are selected on the basis of needs of the school, academic preparation and specialization of the available interns. Following an interview, the principal notifies STEP if he or she wants to employ any of the interviewed interns. When selected, an intern normally signs a contract within a week to ten days.

The Teaching Experience: The Practicum is a joint arrangement between Stanford University and nearby schools. Interns are supervised from Stanford University on a weekly basis during the summer and September.³⁵ During the Autumn, Winter, and Spring Quarters, Stanford supervisors visit classrooms every two weeks. Interns have additional supervision from resident supervising teachers, department heads, and school administrators.

³⁴ Details on tuition payments are given on pp. 35-36 in Volume II of this series.

³⁵ Stanford's academic year begins in the last week of September.

Following visits, STEP interns and supervisors discuss the visit with the intern. The STEP supervisor prepares quarterly Progress Reports on the teaching performance of the intern and also discusses these reports with the intern. Copies of evaluation reports are sent to the intern's advisor and to the STEP director.

All STEP interns are supervised by a Stanford tutor-supervisor and by an experienced teacher in the school who has agreed to serve as a resident supervisor. Each Stanford supervisor is an experienced teacher in the field in which he or she is supervising and is a candidate for an advanced degree in the School of Education. The Stanford supervisors work under the direction of the professor of Curriculum and Instruction in the subject matter in which they supervise and with the director of STEP. They begin working with the STEP interns during the summer. The Stanford supervisor confers with the STEP intern and the resident supervisor on a regular basis, ideally every time the Stanford supervisor visits the class.

Academic Coursework: Interns take foundation courses in psychology, sociology, philosophy, the history of education as well as courses in health, adolescence and reading. Candidates also study curriculum and instruction in their teaching fields.

Courses are taken in other departments of the University to increase a candidate's competence in subject matter being taught and also to provide an opportunity to work with graduate students in other programs. Most of the courses fulfill requirements of the California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing.

The Intern's Responsibilities: Interns are considered regular staff members of their schools and are subject to direction from the administrator and department head in each school. Although they do not teach full-time, their half-day includes the teaching of two classes, formal preparation hours, visiting classes taught by other teachers, conferring with students and supervisors, and preparing for classes. In addition, as part of the practicum, the candidate attends at least one School Board Meeting, PTA meeting, Teachers' Association Meeting, Department Meeting, and Faculty Meeting.

Stanford believes that the first months of beginning teaching should be free of extra duties for an intern as far as possible. STEP requires that interns accept additional assignments only if the assignment does not involve a time commitment which would interfere with the time necessary for preparation of teaching and teaching itself. All extra-curriculum assignments must be approved by the program director and the intern's advisor.

Resident Supervisor's Responsibilities: The resident supervisor who agrees to assist the STEP interns is an experienced teacher. This teacher is encouraged to observe the beginner frequently in both formal

and informal settings. The resident teacher provides counsel and guidance based on these observations. The following practices are strongly encouraged:

1. Orientation. Orientation includes introducing the STEP intern to the school plant and to other members of the staff, to the teachers' restrooms, cloakrooms, workroom, departmental offices and materials, counselors' offices, the school nurse's office, the library, the textbook library and other community resources and facilities relevant to a teacher's role in your community.
2. Supervision. The resident supervisor participates in four major kinds of supervisory activity: observations, conferences with the intern and Stanford supervisor, sending in the progress report regularly, and follow-up visits and conferences.
 - a. Observations: At least one observation should be made of an intern's classes every other week, but additional visits are often desirable, especially during the early part of the school year.
 - b. Conferences: Conferences follow each observation and include recommendations for improvement as well as feedback about performance and progress.
 - c. Progress Reports: The candidate's competencies are to be appraised by him or her, by the resident supervisor, the Stanford supervisor, and by students in the classes. The Resident Supervisor's Progress Report is completed by the person designated for teacher evaluation in the school. The number of observations that serve as the basis for the report is indicated on each report.
 - d. Follow-up to observations, conferences, conversations, and reports is an important part of the supervisor's function. Through it, the supervisor ascertains whether the various recommendations made in conferences have been accepted and tried by the candidate and whether they have proved to be of any help.

The categories of performance to be observed are:

- (1) Purposes of lesson
- (2) Organization
- (3) Selection of materials
- (4) Quality of relationships with students
- (5) Pupil participation and attention
- (6) Effectiveness of lessons
- (7) Formative evaluation
- (8) Summative evaluation
- (9) Capacity for self-evaluation
- (10) Relationship with school, STEP, and the community
- (11) General performance

Criteria for Selecting a Resident Supervisor: A Resident Supervisor

should:

1. Be analytical and realistic in his or her own teaching and about that of others; must recognize and have a tolerance for a wide range of teaching styles and differences in individual aptitude in teaching.
2. Be able to serve as a good teacher model. Such an assessment is based on the teacher's ability to use appropriately a variety of techniques and materials as judged by students, teaching colleagues, and administrators.
3. Be a teacher who has major teaching responsibilities in the curriculum area in which the candidate is assigned. It is particularly helpful if the candidate can view the resident supervisor as a curriculum resource person and as a teacher to observe and be guided by.
4. Have a "free" period corresponding with at least one candidate teaching period so that classroom visitation can occur.

Appropriate supervision by a resident supervisor is based upon his or her availability, on a regular basis, to observe and to confer with the intern. Video or audio taping, extensive note-taking, use of established observation schedules or systems are some of the techniques used by supervisors to bring the observable facts of intern and student behavior in the classroom to the conference-analysis session. As with the resident supervisor, the Stanford supervisor is responsible for "following-up" what is agreed upon in the conference session with further observation of or conferences with the intern.

Coursework: STEP must be completed in sequence. The program begins only in the Summer Quarter each year, and consists of four quarters of study at the university and part-time teaching experience. The School of Education minimum unit requirement for the California Single Subject Credential and for the degree of Mastery of Arts in Education is 46 quarter units earned at Stanford as a graduate student. This work must be distributed over three areas: (1) practicum experiences, (2) required professional education courses, and (3) required academic work outside of education. In some cases a total of nine quarter units previously completed as a graduate student may be accepted by the Committee on Curriculum and Teacher Education to count toward a minimum of 46 quarter units. Interns may take other courses as electives depending on personal preference and individual program need.

All interns are required to complete the following course of study.

<u>Area of Study</u>	<u>Units</u>	
Health and Adolescence/Introduction to Secondary Education	2	
Classroom Observation Techniques	1	
Curriculum and Instruction	4	
Foundations of Education (two courses)	6	
Special Education	1	
Reading	5	
<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>19</u>	(Professional Preparation)
Practicum	<u>18</u>	(Practicum Units)
<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>37</u>	
Academic work	9	
(work outside of education)	<u>46</u>	(Total units required for STEP)

Autumn, Winter and Spring practicum consists of a school year of successful teaching in a local cooperating secondary school, plus a total of 18 quarter units for the year. The sequencing of coursework is flexible.³⁶

³⁶ See pp. 50-51 in Volume II for an example of a typical schedule.

Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program at the University of Oregon

The Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program is now a fifth-year graduate level program designed to meet the complex needs of the beginning teacher. The program is a very successful cooperative effort of school districts and the university. The quality and the structure of the district and University collaboration might well serve as a model for any institution of higher education training teachers. By bringing school-site staff into the university structure and into its decision-making process, and by going out to cooperating districts and involving key district people in the design, implementation, and improvement of the program, a truly collaborative effort has been achieved.

The interview team visited the program during October of 1979. We were able to meet with a representative group of participants and implementors at each level of the Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program.³⁷ The Program Director, Dr. Calvin Zigler; Assistant Director, Virginia Schwartzrock; Program Designer, Edna Kehl; three school district principals, three supervisors, three clinical professors, and four beginning teachers were interviewed.

This report was assembled from data gathered from these meetings, and from descriptive materials and reports provided by the Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program staff.³⁸

³⁸ Major sections of this report are excerpted from the following reports:

University of Oregon, Advanced Program Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program, MRT 1-16, 1979.

University of Oregon, Resident Teacher Master's Degree program, Field Centered Inservice Year, Program Description and Guidelines, Sections 1-6.1, 1979.

The Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program is an outgrowth of the University of Oregon's Internship Program. The Internship Program began in 1963-64 when the Oregon State Board of Education received a four-year grant from the Ford Foundation to fund "experimental programs of extensive activity designed to improve teacher education." A clear provision of the grant was that recipients establish internship programs operated cooperatively by colleges, universities, and participating school districts.

One of the State Board's goals was to have 90% of Oregon's teachers prepared through a fifth-year internship program by 1970. Each of the six Oregon public institutions of higher education, a few of the private colleges, and approximately twenty-three school districts were selected to participate in this redevelopment of their programs. As its part of these activities, the University of Oregon instituted its original internship program in 1963.

Two categories of students were served in the original program: baccalaureate-degree students with little or no previous preparation in teacher education, and undergraduates working toward certification through the four-year program but desiring a fifth year of internship experience. Interns were placed in cooperating school districts for a full school year, received approximately two-thirds of a beginning teacher's salary during the internship, and participated in special classes and supervisory services planned and conducted by Resident Clinical Professors, jointly appointed between the University and the cooperating districts.

The University of Oregon is one of only two institutions in the state that has maintained a fifth-year internship experience for teachers while,

at the same time, offering course work to qualify candidates for a Master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction. The program designator has also been changed through the years, from its original title of the University of Oregon Intern Program to the University of Oregon In-Service Year Program to the current description, Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program. The secondary level program is currently being phased out, as the number of positions that remain open to residents decreases. The elementary level program will remain.

Goals and Expected Outcomes.

The Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program includes four terms of graduate study combined with a year of full-time teaching under the direction of master teachers and jointly appointed School District-College of Education faculty. The perceived and expected advantages and benefits of this program are:

To the Resident Teacher:

- o A clear understanding is acquired of the relation between educational theory and classroom practice.
- o Professional skills are developed through sustained practice under the guidance and supervision of public school and University supervisors.
- o Entry into teaching is smoother with the help of supportive supervisory personnel.
- o Confidence in the use of a variety of teaching strategies and the development of a valued personal teaching style is acquired through exploring, evaluating, and practicing instructional and management techniques.
- o Considerable depth in methodology and techniques in a specialization area may be acquired by taking additional summer courses in one designated area.

To the School District:

- o The district is able to monitor the beginning teacher's progress more often and more effectively.
- o The district is assured of more carefully selected beginning teachers; at the end of the residency year the District has substantive evidence to help in hiring decisions.
- o The district has up-to-date theory and practice being put into operation in its classrooms.

To the Staffs of Each School Building:

- o The staff can profit from seeing new methods and materials used in the Resident Teacher Program.
- o The continuous planning, training, and supervision of resident teachers can generate insights among the school staff into professional growth and the need for advanced training.
- o The University supervision expert can give direct training to a building supervisory staff.

To the Children:

- o The resident teachers' and their supervisors' constant search for better ways to teach results in better education for individual pupils.
- o Added supervision ensures that the beginning teacher does not develop "blind spots" in which individual pupil's needs are overlooked.
- o The joint efforts of the resident teacher and supervisor guarantees that the student participates in a balanced curricular program.
- o Student needs can usually be attended to more quickly with both the resident teacher and supervisor involved.

Cooperative Arrangements with School Districts

The University of Oregon cooperates with school districts from the following areas in Western Oregon:

- o District "4J" which includes Eugene, Springfield, Junction City, Fern Ridge, and Crow Applegate

- o Roseburg, South Umpqua
- o Suburban Portland
- o Bend-Redmond area
- o Coos Bay area

30 resident teachers were placed in elementary schools in the year of this report.

The quality of the residency experience is largely determined by the quality of the school's instructional program, the competence of the school staff, and the staff's commitment to the preparation of teachers. Criteria for the selection of public schools to cooperate in the program are:

- o An instructional program of recognized quality in which resident teachers can be placed.
- o A willingness to participate on the part of the school district and the particular school in which a resident teacher may be placed.
- o A willingness to cooperatively develop a set of working agreements with the University covering all major aspects of the residency program.

Governance

Because the program is a cooperative university and school district program, a basic agreement on certain procedures is necessary. This agreement is based on the following stipulations and practices:

Recruitment: Persons likely to meet the selection requirements for the teaching residency will be recruited from teacher education programs of the University, and school district, and institutional placement bureaus and counseling offices throughout the state and nation.

Application: The initial inquiry to enter the program is made by the candidate to the Coordinator of the Resident Teacher Program, College of Education. Information describing the program is given to the applicant and, if the candidate appears to meet the criteria for selection, he or she is encouraged to make formal application and establish a file of personal data required for screening.

Selection Procedures: Final selection of candidates is made during the academic year prior to the residency year. The procedures followed include:

1. Selections are made by school district and University of Oregon personnel according to specified criteria. The screening personnel include the Coordinator of schools, and teacher education advisors from the schools and departments of the University responsible for the subject matter areas of the candidate's teaching field.
2. The criteria used for selection:
 - o Eligibility for admission to the graduate school
 - o Evidence of a sincere interest in the teaching profession
 - o Appropriate subject matter and professional education background; i.e., the candidate must be eligible for an Oregon Basic elementary or secondary certificate by the time the on-site teaching experience begins.
 - o Personal fitness for teaching as determined by conference, interview, and references.
3. Selection by School District:

Those candidates' credentials selected through the screening process are sent to the various participating school districts having resident teacher openings. The participating school districts screen the applications, and arrange interviews according to their own hiring policies. Final selection is made when a participating school district reaches an agreement with an individual for a specific resident teaching assignment and that individual signs the special Resident Teacher Program contract.

4. Placement of Resident Teachers:

It is desirable that participating school districts notify the coordinator of the Resident Teacher Program of openings for teaching residents as early as possible each academic year.

Every effort is made by the school districts to place the resident teacher in an assignment that provides maximum opportunity to gain competence in the practice of teaching.

With the exception of twelve credit hours, program participants follow a prescribed sequence of courses offered at various off-campus centers. Coordination, instruction, advising, and supervision of most

aspects of the program are provided by qualified clinical professors, jointly appointed between the College of Education and participating school districts, and by a university staff member of the College of Education. The university staff member serves as overall program coordinator in addition to serving as a clinical professor for some of the resident teachers.

Day-to-day governance is provided at each field center by a clinical professor, an in-building supervisor, and the normal administrative processes of the school district. The program coordinator and clinical professors serve as a Program Consortium Council. Contract negotiations, problem situations, and some aspects of the application-hiring process are worked out between the program coordinator and the administrative heads of the participating school districts.

The Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program is a program in the area of Curriculum and Instruction within the Division of Teacher Education and, as such, follows division policy determined by guidelines created by the Associate Dean, the Curriculum and Instruction Graduate Council and the Field Experience Office. The Program Coordinator is immediately responsible to the Coordinator of Field Experience.

Staff of the Program

The Resident Teacher participates in all general school activities: 1) teaching, 2) inservice, 3) extra duties. The maximum teaching load is the full school day. The schedule provides opportunities for conferences with the resident and for observation by the supervising teacher.

Resident teachers are assigned extra-class responsibilities that are assigned the other teachers. But no extra duties are assigned during the first month; the type of extra duty is rotated frequently so several experiences can be had; the resident teacher is responsible for only one extra activity at a time.

Supervising Teachers: Supervising teachers selected and assigned by the school district have the following qualifications: (1) They hold a regular Oregon certificate; (2) they have exhibited the characteristics desired in a supervising teacher; (3) they have had some type of formal instruction in the supervision of teachers in training; (4) they have a good knowledge and understanding of concepts and principles involved in the teaching-learning process as well as the practical applications of these concepts and principles; (5) they are able to communicate on matters pertaining to the nature of learning, the nature of the learner, the goals of education in American society, social foundations of education, and the methodology of teaching; are able to see the interrelationship of these and to make daily decisions consistently that reflects this insight; (6) they are skilled in the subject-matter areas for which the resident teacher is responsible; (7) they are able to recognize cues which indicate problems, strengths, and weaknesses of residents and readiness for next steps in the learning process and are equipped with a variety of techniques to deal with these; (8) they are able to evaluate the progress of the resident teacher in the attainment of the competencies desired in a teacher; (9) they have exhibited and continue to exhibit a high degree of professionalism; (10) they are highly skilled in the utilization of modern technological devices; (11) they are thoroughly familiar with state and district curriculum requirements so that all programs are implemented in a timely fashion.

The average amount of the supervising teacher's expended time per resident teacher is:

1st quarter - 5 hours per week; 2nd quarter - 4 hours per week; 3rd quarter - 3 hours per week (may vary according to individual needs); 4th quarter - 1-2 hours per week (may vary according to individual needs).

A supervising teacher is released full-time for supervision when assigned five to six resident teachers. Where a supervising teacher cannot be provided released time to work with the resident teacher, a district considers providing additional compensation for extra hours (e.g., like a coaching increment) and supplying a substitute on days when the supervisor makes in-class observations.

The Clinical Professor: Clinical Professors have faculty status at the University of Oregon. Qualifications and criteria for selection include:

(1) Successful classroom experience at the level in which he or she will be supervising, (2) previous experience in supervising teachers in training; (3) good knowledge and understanding of the concepts and principles involved in the teaching-learning process as well as the practical applications pertaining to the nature of the learner; (4) skill in the subject-matter areas for which the resident teacher is responsible; (5) is able to recognize cues which indicate problems, and strengths and weaknesses of students as well as readiness patterns for next steps in the learning process; should be equipped with a variety of techniques to deal with these; (6) be able to evaluate the progress of the resident teacher; (7) exhibits a high degree of professionalism; (8) is familiar with various modern technological devices; (9) exhibits characteristics desired in a college instructor; (10) has a thorough knowledge and understanding of various organizational patterns for carrying out the instructional program, such as team teaching, ungraded primary, self-contained classroom, departmentalization, grouping and other new patterns or structures designed to make better utilization of the time of staff and students to maximize learning for the students, or to attain other goals for which the school exists.

The Clinical Professor:

- o Helps the resident teacher to develop skill in self-analysis of his teaching.
- o Serves as a consultant to the resident and supervising teacher in planning and implementing the instructional program.
- o Serves as a resource to the resident teacher and supervising teacher through sharing new ideas, suggesting professional reading, and planning active research.
- o Assists the supervising teachers in coordinating the seminar and practicum experiences with school experiences.
- o Teaches required seminars and practicum classes or provides instruction when special expertise is needed.
- o Organizes and leads the supervising teacher seminars.
- o Schedules classroom observations of the resident teacher.

Curriculum Associates: Curriculum Associates are sometimes provided to elementary schools which have residency teacher programs. Curriculum Associates, in addition to regular teaching assignments, provide supervision and coordination to residents and an instructional unit or team of

staff members. Qualifications of the Curriculum Associate include: (1) a master's degree or equivalent education or experience related to the assignment; (2) a five-year Basic Elementary teaching certificate; (3) additional training in curriculum development, teaching strategies, clinical supervision, and subject areas.

Curriculum associates spend one-third of their time in supervision and two-thirds of their time teaching and fulfilling other curriculum associates' roles. An extra duty increment for additional days worked and additional responsibility is paid to Curriculum Associates over and above their regular teaching salary and benefits.

The Building Principal: The building principal makes the resident teacher's assignment. He or she schedules the classes of the resident teacher and the supervising teacher so that (a) there is opportunity for the supervising teacher to observe the resident teacher teach, (b) there is opportunity for the resident teacher to observe the supervising teacher, and (c) there is a time when both resident teacher and supervising teacher are free for conference. The building principal also supervises and evaluates the resident teacher.

Costs

The resident teacher is paid a stipend equivalent to two-thirds of the regular first-year teacher's salary, and is responsible for full university tuition costs while enrolled in the program. The cost of the program, in terms of salary for the clinical professor, curriculum associate and supervisor, comes from the school district which uses the remaining one-third of the resident teacher's salary. The University of Oregon contributes \$3,000 for teaching classes and travel to the University of Oregon for staff meetings. This money comes out of the continuing education department's budget.

Other costs include released time for the supervising teacher to observe in the resident teacher's classroom and to meet with the program's clinical professor; and the services of a clinical professor who also

supervises the resident, teaches the coursework, trains the supervisors, and coordinates the program for the school district and University of Oregon. The salary for this person is usually shared by the district and the university.

The unit cost per resident teacher is:

Beginning teacher's salary	\$11,200	Beginning teacher's salary
	3,750	Less 1/3
	<u>\$ 7,450</u>	Resident's salary (2/3 of a beginning salary)
	\$ 1,000	Supervisor's increment
\$3,750 =	\$ 750	Substitute time (15 days @ \$50/day)
	\$ 2,000	Clinical professor/Resident

Curriculum Design and Program Structure

Program participants spend an initial term of study consisting of a six-credit, three-week seminar-workshop on campus prior to the public school year. During the school year, resident teachers participate in required seminars and classroom practicum experience. A final term of study in the summer is taken on-campus.

All resident teachers under contract with school districts participating in the Resident Teacher Program enroll as resident graduate students each term and are granted all privileges of full-time students. All field-centered courses are held on location. On-site seminars emphasize the skill and knowledge necessary to assure success in teaching, including study of alternative teaching-learning programs and procedures applicable in major subject areas.

The courses and their arrangement in the curriculum are in Table 2.

Table 2. Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program
Required Field-Centered Courses

Summer	Fall	Winter	Spring
CI 507 2 hrs. Communication Skills for Teacher and Learners	CI 507 4 hrs. Teaching- Learning Environment	CI 507 4 hrs. Synthesis of Teaching Strategies	Elementary: CI 553 4 hrs. Elementary School Curriculum
CI 507 2 hrs. Diagnosis and Design for Instruction	CI 509 3 hrs. Classroom Observation Procedures	CI 509 5 hrs. Analysis of Instruction	CI 509 3 hrs. Evaluation of Instruction
CI 508 2 hrs Scope and Sequence of Instruction			
Total hours: 33			

Program participants are also required to include work in Foundations. An additional 12 hours of work is selected by participants with the assistance of their advisors for in-depth study. The program of studies meets college requirements for a master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction, using the non-thesis option hours.

The Supervising Cycle

Supervision is systematic and has the following phases:

1. Pre-planning--A planning session with the master teacher and resident
2. Observation--Data is taken on the resident's teaching.

3. Analysis and strategy--An analysis is made of the data from the observation. The strategy for handling the conference is developed.
4. Conference with the intern--Conducted by team leader.
5. Post-Mortem Session--Conference for the supervision team only.

The team leader gives the team any information or direction needed for the pre-planning session and provides direction during the complete cycle. After the analysis and strategy session, and from the evidence the team has produced, the leader will make the decision as to how the conference is to operate.

Evaluation

The Resident Teacher Program is committed to continual improvement of the program through evaluation.³⁸

One study is a 1970 report done in District 4J which compares the "products", i.e., rehired resident teachers in the district, with other first-year teachers hired by the district during the years of the study. Individuals entering the profession via the intern program were more likely to remain with the district than were other first-year teachers. Forty-seven percent of the interns who were hired from 1963 to 1970 were still in the District at the time of the report compared to twenty-seven percent of other first-year teachers.

Teacher education graduates who entered the system via the intern program route developed leadership potential at a rate twice as fast as other first-year teachers. This same group of interns also developed

³⁸ Committee Report, Resident Teacher Program. Eugene Public Schools, District 4J, Eugene, Oregon, 1978.

leadership potential at a rate faster than the liberal arts majors who were certified through the intern program during these same years.

Of the nine most recently hired elementary principals in the district, three were interns in this program at one time, and three were supervisors, and three had no association with the program. This high percentage of leaders from a small population of interns seems to indicate that the district recognizes and values the skills and techniques learned from the program.

State Department Report: The state department did not compile extensive hard data for a series of reports made at the beginning of the intern programs. The following comments were made and conclusions drawn, however, from interviews with supervisors and principals in the program during the earlier years:³⁹

- (1) Principals and supervising teachers generally stated it to be their belief that the intern not only developed his teaching skills faster than a first-year teacher of comparable potential but also developed them to a higher level by the end of the first complete year of teaching. On the basis of two years of experience in the teaching internship program and the increased understanding of roles and responsibilities of the various participants, a high degree of success on a wider front is anticipated for the future.
- (2) Interviews with principals and supervising teachers revealed that those inducted into teaching through the internship route tended to recognize individual differences more quickly than first-year teachers and attempted to provide differentiated instruction in keeping with this insight. The teaching interns also saw the relationship between daily activities and both long- and short-

³⁹ William T. Ward and Joy Hills Gubser, reported in the Journal of Teacher Education, September, 1964.

term goals earlier in the school year and experimented more with different teaching styles as they went through the process of identifying and discovering their own teaching style.

- (3) There was no evidence that the interns practiced a higher level of professional ethics.
- (4) There is no evidence at present to support the hypothesis that the teaching interns have a greater commitment to the principles of belief in and respect for the intrinsic worth of the individual.
- (5) There was some evidence that the teaching interns developed their competencies in planning, implementing, and evaluating the instructional program more quickly than the regular first-year teacher.

1977 Program Staff Evaluation Study: Program staff completed a comprehensive evaluation study to determine how much and in what ways resident teachers might be more competent than other first-year teachers who taught their first year without planned study and supervision. The evaluation focused on this question: Is there a difference between the competency of resident teachers and other first-year teachers at the end of their first year of teaching?

Findings from the evaluation data included these:

1. In end-of-first year studies, principals and observers rated both OCE graduates (1976 sample of 22) and Resident Teachers (1977 sample of 21) to be generally competent.
2. Using combined principal and observer averages, Resident Teachers were rated higher than OCE graduates. Differences were small but consistently higher.
3. Resident Teachers gave higher self-ratings than OCE graduates gave themselves. Differences were small but consistently higher.

The Intern Teaching Program at Temple University⁴⁰

The intern program at Temple University is a self-supporting graduate program which has operated successfully for the last 26 years. The program provides an alternative route for liberal arts and science graduates who select secondary school teaching from among many vocational possibilities. The impact of the program is demonstrated by the fact that more than eight out of ten intern graduates remain in teaching. Continued cooperation with local school districts further attests to the success of the program. The program is equally successful in preparing teachers to work in inner-city schools and well-endowed suburban schools. Dr. H. Bernard Miller, Director of the program, described it as one that enhances the professionalism and increases the survival skills of beginning teachers by providing guidance and supervision for a full two-years. Temple interns obtain a master's degree and a teaching certificate while fully employed as secondary school teachers. The site visit team visited Temple in October 1979. We met with Program Director Dr. H. Bernard Miller, Associate Dean Peter Cistone, Dean Jay Scribner, a group of seven Temple faculty and supervisors, two adjunct professors, a Philadelphia school district administrator, four program graduates, five second-year interns, and five first-year interns. The site visit team also attended a first-year intern seminar.

The History and Development of the Temple Intern Program

The Temple Intern Program for College Graduates was established in 1954 under a Ford Foundation Grant to compare the quality of teachers

⁴⁰ A more detailed description is provided in Volume II of this report, pp. 121 ff.

prepared by an experimental internship program with those trained by traditional programs. In this study three groups of teachers were followed for a period of three years (1954-1957). It was found that the interns were at least as competent as were traditionally trained teachers.

At the conclusion of this study in 1957, Temple University assumed responsibility for directing and funding the program and retitled it the Intern Teaching Program for College Graduates (ITPCG). ITPCG had its own director and functioned as a separate program within the Department of Secondary Education.

From 1961 to 1965 procedures for the recruitment and selection of interns were developed. A special program was developed for preparing teachers to teach in inner-city schools. Additional intern programs were begun in special education, junior high school inner-city mathematics, elementary education and physical education. Although these programs did not "take hold", the ITPCG continues to be a successful program for preparing secondary teachers for both inner-city and suburban schools.

In 1967, the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction approved the ITPCG program. The program was redesigned to include courses which stress subject competence and the analysis of teaching. Around this time micro-teaching also was introduced in both summer and school-year teaching activities for the interns.

ITPCG participated in a series of Performance-Based Teacher Competency studies with Educational Testing Service in 1973-1974. As a result of these studies the program faculty developed a set of modules designed to develop specific teacher competencies. Although these modules were designed for the Temple interns, they have been widely used by other programs.

Description of the Temple Program

The ITPCG requires a minimum commitment of two years during which time the intern is employed as a fully salaried teacher and is enrolled in a program of formal course work at Temple. The programmatic theme is "Humanized Training Through Growing Intern Responsibilities for Professional Decisions". The following paradigm organizes the teaching activities of the intern:

- o The intern analyzes value alternatives and selects an objective.
- o The intern analyzes action strategies and selects a mode of behavior.
- o The intern acts.
- o The intern analyzes his or her behavior and evaluates in light of his or her value objective.⁴¹
- o The two-year ITPCG program.
- o Offers interns an opportunity to study professional education while teaching students; to connect theory and practice.
- o Provides a support system to interns of on-going supervision and seminars while they are learning to teach.
- o Encourages interns to use the resources of the university to solve beginning teacher problems.

Over the years, the entering number of interns in the program has declined from about 125 to the current number of about 25 entering interns. Most of the interns are men. Interns complete their master's degree during the course of the program--a summer session plus two years

⁴¹ Hill, R. and Miller, B. The Intern Teaching Program for College Graduates, Temple University College of Education, 1968 Program document.

of supervised teaching.⁴²

Candidates are selected who have expertise in content areas for which there is a great teacher demand; hence, most current interns are training as mathematics and science teachers. The interns are viewed by school districts as better candidates for teaching than traditionally trained applicants.

Half of the interns work in suburban schools and half in urban schools. The intern placements are generally within a 30-mile radius of Temple University.

The Interns

An intern in the Temple University ITPCG is an individual who: holds at least a baccalaureate degree; has met specific selection criteria; has completed introductory courses and done actual classroom teaching with intensive supervision in a summer preparation program; has full responsibility for instruction; is paid by the local school district; and is supervised during the internship by both college and school personnel.

Intern teachers receive intern certificates to teach in the state of Pennsylvania. This certificate is conditional; it remains in force as long as the intern is in training, under supervision, and is succeeding as a teacher.

⁴² Approximately 60% of them do so. Another 30% receive their degrees within three years and the remainder extend the time to four years or longer (with permission for extenuating circumstances). The interns teach in the public schools of Delaware, Chester and Penrose County, with one intern currently teaching in Lehigh County. This intern is visited only once every three weeks, but receives one full day of supervision; other interns are supervised once a week for a minimum of two hours for both observations and feedback conferences.

Selection of the Interns

Interns are liberal arts graduates who have had extensive subject-matter preparation. The quality of their preparation is determined by transcript analysis during the screening process. Applicants must also meet Temple University Graduate School test requirements (GPA, GRE, or MAT).

The selection procedures used by ITPCG are designed to provide as complete a picture as possible of the candidate: academic background, experiences, and personality. The selection process has four stages:⁴³

1. Wide dissemination of program information. Posters, brochures and recruitment visits are used to describe the standards, requirements and operations of the program for interested students as well as placement personnel at various undergraduate schools.
2. Careful study of applications received. Each application is carefully screened for the following information:
 - a. Academic background: evidence of a B.A. degree from an accredited college; a transcript indicating a 2.5 cumulative GPA and a 3.0 subject area GPA; report form showing Graduate Record Examination scores of 900 or better, or Miller Analogy Test Scores of equivalent rank.
 - b. Personal background: applicant's employment history, experience in working with youngsters, health status, family background, applicant's reasons for wishing to teach, etc.
 - c. Three letters of recommendation.
3. An individual screening visit. Screening activities which are arranged for a morning or afternoon at the candidate's convenience, provide the staff with vital information and impressions about the applicants. Equally important, the screening provides the necessary experiences and opportunities to help candidates decide whether this program is for them. The time is organized as follows:

⁴³"Fifth Year Review of Intern Teaching Program for College Graduates", a report submitted to the Pennsylvania Department of Education. Temple University, College of Education, January 1980, pp. 5-7.

- a. Slide presentation: slides describing the history and present operation of the program are shown by a faculty member and are followed by a brief, informal discussion about the program.
- b. Personal interview: the applicant is interviewed by a member of the faculty. During this interview, the personal qualifications of the candidates are carefully assessed; there may be some discussion about the candidate's academic record, particularly if it has fluctuated. Interviewers attempt to judge, among other things,
 - ...the effects of experiences such as tutoring, camp counseling or any other work with young people; any ramifications of experiences like working with VISTA, the Peace Corps or similar organizations; travel or study abroad.
 - ...feelings about teaching and young people
 - ...appearance, speech patterns, general demeanor
 - ...feelings of strengths and weaknesses as expressed by the candidates themselves.
- c. The applicant completes the Interview Questionnaire.
- d. Applicants who have not taken the GRE arrange to take the MAT on campus.

After each screening session, the faculty members carefully analyze and discuss the accumulated data and decide on provisional acceptance or rejection. In some instances, a re-interview is scheduled to clarify areas still in doubt.

4. The summer orientation program. The summer orientation program is the final stage of the selection process. The coordinator assigned to each summer teaching center evaluates the applicant's classroom performance, participation in micro-teaching and seminar sessions, plus overall potential for functioning in the classroom. The initial opportunity to teach in area summer schools provides a realistic setting for final selection. All acceptances are provisional pending the successful completion of this summer orientation.

ITPCG Faculty

The Temple staff is responsible for all of the supervision of the interns during their two years of field experience. There are no

school-based cooperating teachers except during the summer session prior to the field placement.⁴⁴ But interns, as full-time teachers, are evaluated and assisted by the support systems of the schools where they work, as is any new teacher. There are three different faculty roles and positions in the program, each of which involves supervision and evaluation of the interns. Although "everyone does everything," there are differences in emphasis given to the various functions in each of these roles.

Teaching Associates: Two or three teaching associates supervise the interns as their primary responsibility. Each teaching associate works with about twelve interns. Supervision in the first year focuses on "survival issues" such as classroom management. In the second year the supervisor and intern work on issues and problems beyond the classroom such as the teacher's involvement in school activities and professional organizations.

The teaching associates are paired with interns on the basis of common content areas, geographic location and personal compatibility. The associates are also involved in recruitment, selection and have some teaching duties.

Clinical Teaching Associates: Two clinical teaching associates are tenured faculty members assigned full-time to the program. Their primary responsibilities include supervision and teaching general methods courses. They sometimes act as summer-school center coordinators.

Instructors: The four or five instructors for the program range from assistant to full professors. Their primary responsibility is teaching methods courses in content areas. The instructors are faculty in the Department of Secondary Education. The dual assignment provides from one-third to two-thirds of their time to the intern program.

The director of the intern program is responsible for staff selection, although other staff members participate in making these choices. The

⁴⁴This sentence is underlined to call attention to this singular feature.

director is responsible to the chairman of the Department of Secondary Education.

The characteristics sought when new staff are being selected include: three to four years experience in classroom teaching--"a solid background"; subject-matter expertise; the capacity to work with other people; a commitment to high professional standards; the willingness to accept new ideas and change.

Curriculum Design and Structure

The curriculum is organized so that the intern passes through several successive stages of learning to be a teacher. The program offers new experiences at each stage and provides the support, instruction and evaluation needed to succeed at the stage.

The Summer Program, "Orientation to Teaching": The summer program, "Orientation to Education", is an intensive six-week experience designed to induct the intern into teaching through supervised teaching and observation, supplemented with teacher-training workshops and seminars. This intensive summer experience confronts the interns with the reality of classrooms while helping them learn several basic skills and acquire the tools for analyzing their own teaching behavior.

Two teaching-center sites are used for the intern field-experiences: Camden, an urban site, and Lower Merion, a suburban site. Interns who attended suburban schools are assigned to urban schools and urban interns to suburban schools.

Both classroom teachers from the cooperating schools and a full-time university professor are available daily at the centers for supervision and instruction. Interns are paired with experienced classroom teachers. The principals of the schools and the university's center coordinator match the interns with appropriate cooperating teachers.

Summer schools are not typical school situations--they have neither a full school day, nor large classes nor a full teaching staff. Secondary students attend primarily for remedial help. The intern may work as part of a team, participate in a program designed to strengthen basic skills,

or observe different teachers. The center coordinator guides the interns in selecting these experiences.

Workshops and seminars are held for four days prior to the beginning of school at the teaching centers. The following topics are included in these induction activities: expectations of interns and what interns may expect of the program; techniques of interaction analysis; organization of seminar centers; video equipment training; skill building—modules on interaction analysis, questioning skills, establishing pre-instructional set, etc; pressures, problems and satisfactions of interns; lesson planning; placement procedures for fall positions; professional ethics.

During the four week teaching period at the centers weekly "Intern Interaction" seminars are held with the Director of ITPCG, and other staff members. Additional summer session seminars are conducted daily by the Center Coordinator. Following the close of summer school two full days at the center are devoted to seminars on areas of specialization and other topics of particular interest or used.

During the six-week summer program interns work on specially prepared instructional modules which focus on specific teaching skills:

- o Questioning in the classroom.
- o Establishing pre-instructional set.
- o Giving directions.
- o Closure.
- o Classroom management problems

Microteaching is used to develop skills in these areas. Practice using this technique occurs in the summer and during the first year of intern teaching.

Job Placement. Interns are encouraged to begin seeking a teaching position as soon as they are provisionally accepted in the intern program. Although assistance is offered by the University Placement Office, the responsibility for procuring employment rests with the intern.⁴⁵ Interns are asked to inform their center coordinator and the ITPCG office about their job-seeking progress and ultimately, the job they have found.

The First Year Field Experience. The intern is considered a full-time teacher, is paid the salary of a beginning teacher, and assumes the same full teaching responsibilities as any other beginning teacher but with supervision from an assigned ITPCG faculty member. The intern receives two full years of supervision. The ITPCG faculty member is a subject matter specialist who acts as a resource person who provides feedback

⁴⁵ These words are underlined to call attention to this unusual feature.

following observations, suggests strategies, activities and materials, and at times, co-teaches or demonstrates teaching techniques. A different supervisor is assigned to the intern during the second year.

During the first year the intern is expected to cope with classroom management problems reasonably well; to develop daily and long-range lesson plans; to keep records; to locate and use appropriate resource materials; and to evaluate his or her pupils' progress.

Interns are required to take two courses during the first year: "The Teaching Process" (fall), and a methods course in the intern's area of specialization (spring). Interns may not register for additional course work during the first semester; however, if an intern evaluation is satisfactory, he or she may request to take an additional course for the second semester.

The Second Year Field Experience: During the second year of internship, the intern is given the option of having less frequent supervisory visits. The focus of the supervisory assistance changes helping the intern with a special project related to classroom experience. Each intern has his or her own project and is guided by a team of two supervisors.

Interns are encouraged to assume extra-curricular responsibilities, such as sponsoring study interest groups and coaching sports teams, in addition to working on the improvement of their teaching skills with university supervision. During the second semester of the second year interns are required to take an advanced version of "The Teaching Process."

Additional Coursework: Several additional courses are required: at least one course in the psychoeducational process, one in curricular/philosophical bases, and a third in reading methods for English, social studies and junior high-school science teachers. Electives fill the remaining semester hours (six or more) required to complete the Master of Arts Degree, and must be selected from the intern's academic teaching area or from professional education offerings; all are subject to their advisor's approval.

Intern Evaluation: Each intern must either take a comprehensive examination or complete a special project related to his or her classroom experience during the second year of the teaching internship.

In addition to passing the comprehensive examination or successfully completing the special project option, the intern must earn other academic

credits excluding courses in supervised teaching and must earn a grade of B or better in the classroom teaching courses.

Within the ITPCG courses, the evaluation of interns is largely based on their knowledge, understanding and use of the skill building modules: "Assessing One's Own Teaching", "Giving Directions", "Establishing Pre-Induction Set" (EPIS), "Closure", "Questioning" and "Classroom Management Problems" (CLAMP). The ITPCG faculty has used the module "Assessing One's Own Teaching" for the intern's self-evaluation.

The intern also evaluates the supervisor with whom he or she works, using the "Supervisor Assessment Form". This form assesses evaluation, intellect, personality, professional development and supportive relationships. In addition, following the completion of each course, interns assess instructors on the "Instructor Evaluation" form which rates preparation, presentation, personality and intellect.

Although grades are assigned at the end of courses, assessment of interns' knowledge, understanding and the application of theory into practice is on-going with continuous supervision and cooperative evaluation.

Structure of the program. The figure below shows the ITPCG program requirements.

	<u>SUMMER</u>	<u>FALL</u>	<u>SPRING</u>
F	Sec Ed 680 8 s.h.	Sec Ed 681 2 s.h.	St Tchg 278
I Y	Orientation	The Tchg	Supv Tch in Sec Schools
R E	to teaching	Process	Methods Course (1) 3 s.h.
S A		St Tchg 277	Eng Ed 620 - Curr & Methods
T R		Supv Tchg 277	in Sec Eng
		Sec Sch	For Lng Ed 430 - Curr & Meth
			in For lng
			Math Ed 470 - The Tch of Math
			Sci Ed 713 - The Tch of Sci.
			in Sec Sch
S			
E Y		St Tchg 688	St Tchg 689
C E		Supv Tchg	Supv Tchg in Sec Schools
O A		in Sec Sch	Sec Ed 682
N R			The Tchg Process 2 s.h.
D			

Upon completion of these above courses, 15 graduate credits will be accrued. A minimum of 15 additional graduate credits are required. The following set of courses are recommended:

READING METHODS (required of English, social studies, JHS science teachers) 3 s.h. Reading in the Secondary School

PSYCHOEDUCATIONAL PROCESS (one course required) 3 s.h.
Analytic Study of Teaching; Group Behavior in Instruction

CURRICULAR/PHILOSOPHICAL BASES (one course required) 3 s.h.
Social Foundations of Education; Secondary School Curriculum

The program may require individual interns to take specific courses on the undergraduate or graduate level for certification purposes.

The ITPCG has been described in a general way by blocks of internship time, i.e., the summer program, and the first and second years. A "Behav-

loral Competency Study" figure charts the program by the behavioral competencies expected of the interns.⁴⁶ It includes the program content, activities and experiences designed to foster attainment of the required competencies and the specific means of evaluation used to measure the degree to which interns have attained them.

Evaluation Data

The site visit to ITPCG was done on October 24 and 25, 1979. Interviews with faculty members and interns were conducted during these two days and the team members were given a complete set of written information about the ITPCG.

The Views of the First-Year Interns.⁴⁷ The first-year interns were very enthusiastic about their program experiences and extremely eager to share their views with the site visit team. They were all in agreement that the quality and frequency of their supervision was a significant feature of their program. They felt that their supervisors were positive and constructive in their feedback and that the program faculty members (both supervisors and others) always were easily accessible and very responsive to their needs.

They discussed the importance and the rigors of their initial summer session experience. Observing other teachers and peers was seen as helpful as was the opportunity to do the microteaching while learning and practicing the skills modules.

When asked what problems they had encountered as beginning teachers, they provided this list:

- o The biggest problem was lesson planning. The materials were often inappropriate for their students; and they had to develop much of their instructional material.

⁴⁶ The complete chart is given on pages 136-139 of Volume II of this report.

⁴⁷ The interviewees were assembled by the Temple staff; we inquired about dissidents but there seemed to be none. The participants were critical of the program when appropriate.

- o Implementing their lesson plans was a difficulty frequently cited.
- o They had insufficient knowledge of their students' background.
- o They did not have enough time for preparation for teaching.⁴⁸
- o Some felt they had difficulty arousing student's interests.

It was to meet these concerns that they sought help from their supervisors. They indicated that they also brought their problems to their weekly seminar on campus.

When asked what changes they would like to see made in the program, the first-year interns suggested:

- o Increased time in the orientation to the program.
- o Instruction on lesson planning and teaching techniques before going into the classroom.
- o More work on the methods of teaching during the summer session and the first semester of teaching.

Observation of a Seminar, The Teaching Process. The interview team was invited to an evening seminar for the first year interns. The topic for discussion was "The Teacher in the Hierarchy". Dr. Miller and Dr. Manusov were co-instructors of this course. Dr. Manusov started the discussion by asking the interns to consider their perceptions of the hierarchy of their schools with their own relative status included in that hierarchy.

The interns explored the roles played by the many "others" in the school organization. The interns concluded that their role in the hierarchy would be what they made it, and that each of the "others" in their schools has a role with respect to them. The acceptance of their own responsibilities within the hierarchy and the recognition of the roles and responsibilities of others emerged from the discussion.

The rapport among the interns and of the interns with the staff was excellent. Respect was shown for differing points of view. Questions were direct and frank; answers were honest and open.

The Views of the Second Year Interns. The second year interns had a very positive attitude toward the program. They too were enthusiastic about the helpfulness of their supervisors and the teaching skills modules. They particularly liked the CLAMP module (Classroom Management Problems).

⁴⁸Note: These are the same problems previously cited in reviewing the literature of beginning teachers.

They identified their major problems as:

- o An inability to get "all the work done".
- o Being responsible for the many tasks a teacher has.
- o The difficulties encountered in coping with many different kinds of people--students, teachers, administrators, university faculty, etc.

When asked about how they would like to see the program improved, they suggested:

- o Less theoretical coursework; more application to practice⁴⁹
- o More opportunity to observe other teachers. They would like to see the policy of mixing the two summer groups (Camden and Lower Merion) continued since the sharing between groups adds to their knowledge and understanding of teaching concerns. There were mixed feelings about evaluation--apparently depending on the personality of the supervisor and the quality of the feedback. Some supervisors write out detailed recommendations and this was favorably received.

The interns were interviewed during the fall semester when there was no planned seminar that afforded interaction among them regarding teaching problems. Most felt this lack.

The Views of Graduates of the Program. Four Temple "veterans" were interviewed about their perceptions of the program, the problems they had encountered as beginning teachers, and the kinds of help they had received from the program faculty. They said that as interns their problems had been:

- o They were generally overwhelmed by the amount of work required of them as teachers, that is, "hours and hours of preparation."
- o They lacked materials and support from the school system.
- o They needed help in the beginning years with classroom management skills.

When asked how they were helped in solving these problems, they agreed that their only source of help was the supervision provided by the program staff. In fact, they have continued to call on Temple program staff for assistance since completing the program.

In discussing their feelings about improving the program they said:

⁴⁹ Apparently any discussion beyond how-to-do-the-job is considered theoretical. It was comments like this which, particularly when made in the context of a very practical program, that showed us the essence of how beginning teachers see their work.

- o Seminars were not closely related to actual classroom problems; too much theory--except for the method's coursework.
- o Suggestions from group members (peers) were very helpful; they would like veterans of the program to share their experiences.
- o They felt a need for observations of other teachers in other schools.

The Views of the Director

When asked about problems the beginning interns encounter, Dr. Miller said the ability to manage a class was their most pressing concern.⁵⁰ Temple supervisors work very hard with interns on this problem, stressing the importance of stimulating and meaningful curriculum and instructional strategies. Interns are encouraged to move from their collection of "a bag of tricks" into learning about teaching and about pupils.

He also feels that the interns need assistance in managing their own time well for preparation, instructional pacing, other teacher responsibilities in the school and their professional course work, etc.

Dr. Miller observed that beginning teachers become somewhat set in their ways of teaching by the end of the first year. For this reason a different supervisor is assigned to interns for their second year internship. He stressed the importance of teaching the interns job-seeking skills and the ethical nature of professional commitments, including learning how to make personnel inquiries, ask and respond to appropriate interview questions, and prepare credentials.

The Views of the Staff. Eight staff members were interviewed collectively to discuss their participation in and views of the intern program. Two teaching associates, involved primarily in the supervision of interns, and six full-time faculty members responsible for the program courses (who also supervise a small number of interns) were interviewed.

The staff cited the screening process for intern selection as very valuable, particularly the confirmation of interns in the program following the summer assignment as a positive factor in the selection process. Having the entire staff involved, whenever possible, in the initial screening interviews was desirable.

The staff not only provided supervisory support to interns on a weekly basis, but also frequently assisted interns by telephone. Their evaluations of the interns is kept quite separate from evaluations by school administrators. The faculty evaluations are based to a large

⁵⁰ See also, H. Bernard Miller and Fredrick Harwood, Journal of Teacher Education, Volume 23, #4, 1972; Intern Teaching Programs in Urban Schools: Impact on Instructional Improvement, PR 427-430.

degree on teaching performance demonstrating the competencies of the Temple training modules.

Their suggestions for program improvement included:

- o Clustering the interns within schools for peer support and easier management of supervisory assistance.
- o Attempting to "sell" the program to the liberal arts faculty.
- o Removing the intensive summer experience completely from the Temple University setting; establish live-in residence near school sites with faculty supervision.

The faculty sees intensive supervision as the primary program element that produces effective teachers. They think that the intern's work as a salaried teacher, while paying for his continuous participation in university courses and supervision, establishes a personal commitment to professional growth.

The Views of Adjunct Professors. The interview team met with Professor Thomas Hawkes and Professor Matthew Bruce to discuss their involvement with the intern program.

Professor Bruce teaches Science Education and a science workshop for the Temple Intern Program during the summer experience. He supervises interns once a week during the semester in which he teaches them.

Dr. Bruce's instructional strategy revolves around planning instruction based on an assessment of what children know, the structure of science, and how these factors relate to each other. He stated that the Temple Intern Program is an alternative route for more mature, more committed teachers in training.

Professor Hawkes teaches "Psychoeducational Process: Group Behavior and Instruction" each semester and summer. He stated flatly that the interns taking this course are "the best students in the college". He guides interns through research projects matched to their teaching experience. Examples of topics selected are: teacher assessment of children's characteristics; intelligence and creativity; and grouping--the social context.

He describes his courses as a theoretical social science approach with "practice in the application of ideas". He uses subject matter as a base for studying group behavior and instruction, and the teaching strategy he emphasizes is problem solving; i.e., hypothesizing, collecting data, and testing hypotheses. Dr. Hawkes assists interns with their other teaching concerns, but does not observe them in their classrooms.

Both professors agreed that the advantages of the internship were the opportunities.

- o to work on professional education while teaching students helps in connecting theory and practice.
- o to provide for on-going supervision and concurrent seminars.
- o to utilize the resources of the university solving beginning teacher problems.

Summary

The Temple Intern Program provides two years of supervision and educational support to its interns. The interns are full-time high school teachers paid by the participating districts. The program is characterized by the richness of the individual assistance provided to each intern and the respect for each intern's individualism. The overwhelming impression we had was one of great enthusiasm for the program from all concerned.

Our perceptions of the strengths of the Temple Intern Program were:

- o Interns are very carefully selected, and are not fully admitted to the program until they successfully complete the intensive summer teaching experience.
- o Interns are very well prepared academically in their areas of specialization when they come to the program.
- o Interns' summer experience provides an opportunity to put theory into practice while working constantly toward the development of teaching skills.
- o Interns receive sustained two-year support and supervision. This component of the program is lauded the most by all participants in the program.

Time may be the ultimate test of success of any intern program. The Temple Intern Program has been in operation for twenty-six years and has adapted its program to meet the changes in students, university and public school needs. It is today a visible and exciting program that

demonstrates its success by the effective classroom teachers who are its graduates.

If there is a special element in the Temple program--beyond the expertise and dedication of the able staff--it may be the utilization of the summer session as part of the selection and training process. Temple interns learn to teach all kinds of students--no meager achievement in the current climate of American high schools.

AN ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF THE INTERNSHIP

Because the internship has no formal status in the system for educating teachers, different forms have been developed by different institutions. One distinguishing characteristic of the internship is the amount of responsibility which the intern assumes for teaching.⁵¹ If the beginning teacher or the teacher in preparation has complete responsibility for one or more classes, the program qualifies as an internship. Other developers of internships argue for the importance of the amount of teaching which the intern does or whether or not the intern is paid for the teaching.

Where the internship should occur in the course of a person's education is also a matter of dispute and in part probably also a matter of convenience. The dispute is about whether the internship ought to be an integral part of a continuing program which extends over several years or a totally independent program which is a complete preservice program in itself. Almost all institutions which have had a full year of internship have held the internship during a fifth year which culminates in a Master's Degree. We are not aware of any existing programs in which the internship is a fifth year of an undergraduate program, although this idea is occasionally suggested.

We were surprised that so relatively few internship programs exist at the present time despite the widespread advocacy of this arrangement and the belief that it is an effective means for preparing teachers. Many individuals do regard the internship as a particularly expensive

⁵¹ We should warn the reader that the word "internship" is sometimes used to describe licensing or credentialing arrangements rather than programs.

program, though only very limited data on costs are available. There is also widespread belief that jobs for interns are not available, and that interns will take jobs away from regular teachers. Neither claim seems to be true. Judgments on such matters seemed to be based on impressions and fears.

The internship is strongly advocated, has been tried successfully, but has not been developed or implemented as part of the formal and regular system of preparing teachers. While each of the reasons offered to explain this anomaly is a partial explanation, the surprising fact is that none of these reasons in themselves is compelling, and some, such as the possibility that the internship will take jobs away from regular teachers, are only of recent significance.⁵² Further, when one hears a criticism of "internships," the critic usually has a particular kind or feature in mind, but makes a criticism as if it were valid for all and any kind of internships.

The Ford Foundation internships in the late 1950's were created on the belief that the profession of teaching needed the well-educated liberal arts graduate in its ranks. This view led to the creation of the internship as a fifth-year program which was not preceded by any formal preparation in professional education. This arrangement was devised to make entering teaching attractive to the liberal arts major who usually wanted to avoid teacher education courses.

This form of the internship was and is really a preservice program condensed into one year. The intern, however, is an employee of the

⁵² At Temple University, for example, the interns themselves have to seek out jobs, and have little or no trouble finding them, and this situation exists in a city where the teacher's union is very strong.

school system and is usually paid a salary by the school system. Those who developed these programs are firm believers that the status of being an employee with the consequence of receiving a salary is an important aspect of the internship concept.

The intern programs of this type which have been most successful have all adopted some form of preparation prior to the actual year of internship. Both Stanford and Temple have an intensive summer program, the University of Oregon builds its fifth-year program on a traditional student teaching-type of program.

These variations have never been compared in terms of the teaching effectiveness of the graduates of the programs. Each program seems to graduate a number of reasonably successful and competent practitioners. The faculties in these programs are not only satisfied with them but in most cases enthusiastic about them because of the quality of the experience which the intern obtains. But it is reasonable to believe that the extensive program of the University of Oregon is more likely to produce more effective teachers, but it may be that everything needed for basic competence can be learned in a fifth year internship. The question deserves an empirical answer.

The Nature of the Intern's Practical Experience

It is difficult to know without empirical evidence whether a particular feature of an intern program is beneficial or has undesirable consequences or some mixture of both. In order to establish an internship the practice has been to "acquire" positions in schools which are available to interns.

Because the internship is not supported independently by the state government or the university, the positions which are to be made available have to be those which the school system can support. The practical consequence for the intern is that he or she has the assignments which are available with these positions.

The internship thus provides an intensive but not necessarily extensive teaching experience. The intern does not necessarily develop a range of skills nor does the intern learn how to apply their skills in a variety of circumstances.

Intensiveness of the Teaching Experience

An internship is a genuine, real teaching experience. But it ought to be recognized that the quality of this teaching experience depends largely on what the teacher is willing and able to try, the kinds of professional goals the teacher sets for himself or herself, the range of teaching strategies which he or she is willing to try, and the critical judgment and creative thoughtfulness brought to the processes of teaching. The intern must first be instructed on the possibilities, must be taught the relevant skills and knowledge for trying a variety of ways of teaching, and must be given the supervision and support required to try different ways of teaching.

There are special problems in insuring this development of the intern. One is that the intern is experiencing all of the problems of the beginning teacher. Interns talk like regular teachers about the problems of beginning to teach.

This initial experience--focussed on the critical problems of getting started and the need to deal with one's own anxieties and fears--determines how the intern will perceive teaching. The intern will teach no better for some time than he or she is able to learn to teach within the first weeks, and may never progress beyond that level of skill and effort.

The internship qua internship is not a way of solving the problems of beginning teachers. The beginning teacher-intern has the support of the university staff, but if these resources are not used selectively and precisely, the internship is no better for solving the problems of beginning teachers than is the traditional program.

We have seen interns reject any suggestions for professional development once they have mastered the critical tasks of beginning teaching. They effectively dropped out of the internship program even though they continued to be enrolled in it. They also regarded the persons who helped them survive this period as the critical people in their internship experience. Thus the internship may not lead to continuing professional growth and it may turn out as many minimally competent survivors as other forms of preparation.

Preparation for the Internship Teaching Experience

Realism seems to be a critical dimension of any experience preparatory for the internship. By "realistic" we mean that the intern is exposed in this preparatory experience to pupils who are less than totally enthusiastic for what the intern is teaching, who will create real discipline problems

which have to be mastered, who are students or pupils like the ones the intern will be teaching in the fall, and who act like pupils and students usually act. The importance of this realism is that it brings to the fore what appears to be one of the most difficult aspects of beginning teaching, that it is not what the interns expected it to be. Therefore the summer experience or prior experience is all the more critical. But it, too, tends to be an experience limited to a six or eight-week summer session and to the opportunities which are provided by available summer programs, which are useful but necessarily limited to the purposes of summer schools.

The Supervision of the Intern

Internship programs have found no magic remedies for providing adequate supervision for the beginning teacher or intern. The arrangements generally are like those in a traditional program except that internships have had more fiscal resources to allot to supervision and sometimes have provided a greater variety of individuals to work with the interns.

There are two different kinds of supervisory problems: one, the problem of school supervision; the other, faculty supervision. The administrator of the school must provide some form of supervision. This supervision is over and above that provided by a supervising teacher who works closely with the faculty of the university and the intern. The quality of this later supervision depends on how the school faculty are chosen, whether they are trained for supervision, and what their beliefs and standards about effective teaching happen to be.

The problem of supervision by university faculty has two components. The college or university system in which the program is conducted determines how likely it is that supervision will be a major responsibility of senior and full-time faculty. If the rewards to the faculty are for research and publication or for typical university teaching, supervision is likely to be neglected by them or relegated to junior faculty or to graduate assistants. These latter quite frequently provide excellent supervision, but the processes of supervision are being accommodated to another set of values which are irrelevant to it and to the preparation of effective teachers.

The other problem with faculty supervision is that it may be seen as "too theoretical" by the interns themselves. Our view is that faculty are frequently advocating the best practice, the most innovative practice, but the interns are unwilling to try such practice because they are barely managing to preserve order and to move from one day to the next.

Learning About Pupils and Different Schools in the Internship

There is universal agreement that teachers in preparation ought to have a variety of experience in different types of schools, different types of educational programs, with different types of pupils. As solemnly and as regularly as this principle is invoked, it is also ignored for what are "practical" reasons.

Moving interns from one school to another is difficult to arrange. The intern accepts a contract and is assigned to a school and within that school is assigned to classes in the same way as are other teachers. This

commitment and obligation takes precedence over the needs of interns for a variety of teaching experiences.

Although practical administrative problems seem to limit the character of the internship experience, there may be another reason. The internship in most programs, if not all, is an extended in-depth teaching experience as much like a "real" teaching experience as possible. Stability in a position over the course of the year, immersion in the life of one school, working with the same pupils for a semester or more are all features of ordinary teaching. They give distinctive tone and character to the life of the teacher. Some designers and developers of programs believe that this experience of continuity is more important than having varied experiences with different groups of students or in different kinds of schools.

Emotional Involvement in Teaching and the Life of the School

The intern as a teacher must create viable relations with thirty or a hundred and fifty pupils. These relations must be established quickly and made the foundation for a special kind of work, that which promotes learning on the part of the pupil. The teacher is immersed in work which is largely interpersonal in character, in which the teacher stimulates, supports, encourages and discourages, persuades, cajoles, reprimands, evaluates, consoles, rewards a child or an adolescent for hours of each day, day after day. Because of its highly interpersonal nature, teaching is probably far more intense than the emotional life associated with other kinds of work or jobs. Its onset is sudden; its impact is pervasive in the life of a teacher.

The interns must cope with these emotional demands at the very time that they are attempting to cope with the technical aspects of managing classes. Few can be emotionally detached from their teaching experience nor can they treat it simply as a training experience which has its ups and downs, and in which they are likely to make some mistakes but from whose consequences they are protected. They feel badly if they think students do not respect or like them, do as they please, are uninterested or quarrelsome. A good day elates them; a bad day depresses them.

The emotional impact of the teaching experience is the most significant feature of beginning to teach. Unfortunately the problem of beginning to teach is seen as a problem of learning techniques of management and instruction; it is. But it is also a problem of coping with these new emotional demands.

Even if the beginner has the necessary skills well in hand, he and she probably needs support for learning to live this new life as a life. The internship provides considerable emotional support for the intern. Most of it is given by the college supervisors and some of it may be unrealistic, counterproductive or mostly false assurance because of the remoteness of some of these supervisors from the particular situation in which the intern is immersed. Some programs have provided counselors, but in the internship programs these were mainly for those in serious trouble.⁵³

We will see in the next section that the British induction programs were designed in part to address these problems.

⁵³ See the work of Francis Fuller, op. cit. The University of Texas program developed around her ideas of counseling as an integral part of a teacher education program worked well, but the program was a preservice program and addressed best the first problems of becoming a teacher. The same ideas might work well in internships, however.

The Quality of the Internship Experience

The quality of the internship experience varies with 1) the kind of school to which the intern is assigned and the characteristics of the pupils in that school; 2) the quality of supervision given to the intern by the teachers and administrators in that school; 3) the degree to which the faculty of the training institution relate their instruction to the practicalities of the intern's life. Of these three conditions, the second is probably the most important because on it depends the intern's ability to cope with the day-to-day problems, and hence it is directly related to his survival. It is also most likely to influence the course of the intern's future development.

But if the quality of the supervision only encourages the intern to teach like the teachers in the school, and if that teaching is pedestrian, uninspired, and conventional, the intern is likely to adopt this teaching style permanently and so limit his or her potential for future development. The intern will have no models of the best professional practice, will have no stimulation to seek out such models, will in fact be told that "going along" is a way of "getting ahead" or surviving.

Whether we would have better supervision if the school faculty had more responsibility for evaluating the intern, we cannot say definitively because there is no real empirical evidence on this point. Most of the discussion in the literature pertains to raising the status of the supervising teacher largely with a view to "capturing" the teacher and thereby involving him or her more deeply in the work of the internship.⁵⁴

⁵⁴ Chaltas, J. B., Southworth, H. C. & Kain, J. M. The supervision of intern teachers. In D. M. McGeoch (Ed.), Internships in Teacher Education. Forty-Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Association for Student Teaching, 1968.

This problem is both political and practical. The training institution is responsible for evaluating the intern because it will recommend the intern for certification. This scheme is not immutable; nor has it proven so worthwhile that it ought not to be changed. But changing it so that teachers and administrators are primarily responsible for evaluating the intern before certification is a major policy change.

Some states have and are making such changes. About a decade ago Oregon set up a system of competency evaluation of beginning teachers. Each district requires the prospective teacher to demonstrate specific competencies which that district stipulated as required of each of its teachers. The teacher was trained and evaluated on the competencies. In this system the power to evaluate was shared among the district's administrators, teachers and their representatives, and a training institution. No substantive evaluation of this experience is available.

The State of Georgia has made a similar change. (We describe it in the next section.) The State, rather than the local district, has stipulated the competencies to be demonstrated by each teacher before the teacher is permanently certified. The State has also created a common system of evaluation done by trained teacher-evaluators and administrators, and includes local teachers and administrators on an evaluation team for each beginning teacher.

These models demonstrate that significant changes can be made in policies governing the evaluation of the beginning teacher before permanent certification is given to the candidate. Such changes, however, are not sweeping the country. One reason is the need to prepare teachers for assuming evaluative responsibilities, and to make appropriate adjustments in their work loads and compensation for what is rightly seen by them as "extra" duties.

Practicing teachers now contribute this service. The monetary and professional rewards for it are miniscule. With the exception of one institution, Stanford University, the rates at which supervising teachers are paid has apparently changed very little in the last two decades, and they were never very generous. Attempts have been made to change the supervisory position to a quasi-faculty position. The notion of a "clinical professor" has been advocated for a long time but seems to have had a real try-out only at the University of Oregon, where it was used successfully.

Training of experienced teachers is either not done at all or done poorly, though there have been some exceptions. In the three programs described here: Oregon uses clinical professors, who are part-time faculty members and part-time teachers. Stanford developed a reasonably good training program for cooperating teachers; Temple makes no attempt to use experienced teachers as supervisors. The system of clinical professors is the most difficult to create. A good training program is difficult to sustain.

Despite all the claims for its supposed advantages, a system of integrating experienced teachers into college faculties has not worked. Numerous colleges and universities have "good working relations" with experienced teachers. But we think that an honest, tough-minded evaluation of all of these arrangements would show that the cooperating teachers have a subordinate, secondary role; that their contributions to training and evaluation are ill-defined; and that the relation exploits the teacher. Blame is widely distributed by all the participants who contribute to the perpetuation of an ineffective, poorly organized, and compromised system for bringing the experience of the practicing teacher into the training and evaluation of the beginning teacher.

Perhaps the Temple approach is the wisest, at least as a step towards building a more effective way of utilizing the experience of the best teachers and administrators. That solution clearly delineates responsibility: the university is responsible for evaluating a prospective trainee as a teacher--are they learning the necessary skills of effective teaching; the school system evaluates the prospective teacher as an employee--are they teaching satisfactorily in their current job. Not all problems are eliminated by maintaining this distinction--what if the two evaluations differ? But the issues are sharpened--should the college and the school system be using the same criteria? The fuzzing over of such issues has created and sustains the mythology of cooperation and the hope of an integrated system which has yet to be built.

The internship obviously has not solved the problem of "utilizing the experience of the field" in training the beginner. But in attempting to do so, developers of internships have created an infra-structure of supervision which works well. It too is not securely institutionalized because its personnel are invariably transient because their positions require them to move on.

Using Graduate Students as Supervisors

Most universities use advanced graduate students who fill the positions of research assistant, teaching assistant, as instructor. The advantages of using graduate students as supervisors are: 1) the faculty has complete control over this selection; 2) they can be trained more extensively than teachers in the schools; 3) their experience is as current as that of the practicing teachers in the school; 4) they are detached from the politics of the school in which the intern is teaching; 5) they are not burdened with a full teaching schedule; 6) they themselves are thinking about the problems

of curriculum and instruction because their graduate work involves the study of these problems.

Possible Improvements

Two plans have been advocated for using experienced teachers to supervise interns. One is a substantial improvement on the "cooperating teacher" concept; it was partially tried at Stanford in the early days of its program, and was enough of a success to demonstrate its potential effectiveness.

The other plan is a modification of the system of using advanced graduation students as supervisors. This plan, as proposed here, has been tried in a few institutions off and on over the years. Reports about it, which unfortunately depend on memories going back many years, are positive.

The first plan is to create part-time teaching positions in the interns' schools which are filled with the regular faculty of the school. In this arrangement an intern could assist in the class of his supervising graduate teacher, teach there under the direction of this individual, and watch demonstrations by him or her. The graduate teacher would have periods for observing and talking to interns.

A second plan might be to recruit regular teachers from the schools into graduate study. A part of their curriculum would be practicums in which they supervised interns. This plan has the advantage of using teachers already in a school where interns are placed. It may have the disadvantage of creating a different class of teachers in that school and thus arouse jealousy about preferential treatment.

The relation between the supervising teacher, the intern, and the college has always been difficult to work out satisfactorily. The incentives offered to the supervising teacher are meager, the supervising teacher must maintain his or her position in the school as a teacher, and many teachers who would make excellent supervising teachers are uninterested or unwilling to assume this role or have commitments which preclude taking it on. As long as this situation prevails, it will be very difficult to provide the interns with the kind of close relationship with a working teacher which is generally desired, but which is rarely realized in practice.

The Problems with Faculty Supervision

Supervision of interns may be relegated to junior faculty, assistants, or part time instructors. If it is, it is done because the local university culture rewards other work--lecturing, research, consulting. But intern programs seem to provide more supervision (and probably better) than traditional teacher preparation programs. This may be so because the interns have full responsibility for their classes, their success or failure is highly visible, and because the training institution is expected to give them all the help they need to succeed so that their pupils do not suffer (this is an important element in the quid pro quo which supports the internship).

The major complaint about faculty supervision is that it is too theoretical. It is impossible to test the validity of this charge except by the reports of interns (v. also student teachers); neither can it be dismissed when it is so frequently and generally made.

We have had very few different models to study. The typical model in internships is indistinguishable from that used in student teaching programs. Creative experimentation is badly needed. One arrangement might be to have the practicing profession become primarily responsible for a period of training and evaluation of its inductees.⁵⁵

Supervision ought to be turned over to the best of both the school faculty and the university faculty, to those who understand teaching, are skillful at it, and believe in the importance of supervising the beginning teacher. Until such a cadre of individuals is built up, committed to the task of supervising, and rewarded for doing so, "having practical experience" will mean little more than floundering and learning by trial and error.

Because of the difficulties in providing these conditions in all training programs, efforts are now being made to create special programs for beginning teachers, that is, those who have begun to teach as regular, full-time employees. A discussion of induction programs follows.

INDUCTION PROGRAMS

This section describes the major forms of programs which have been developed for teachers who had begun the transition into full-time teaching. They are relatively few in number, our experience with them is limited, but they are amalgamations of ideas and experiences which appear to be promising.

⁵⁵ This idea may be considered an intrusion on the evaluation function of the administration. But a peer model of evaluation during an internship would serve two functions: 1) as part of training; 2) as part of the certification process. Neither of these functions is an administrative function of the school.

Induction programs fall into three general types: one, the collection of successful schemes used in Great Britain which rely on mentors (experienced teachers) to assist beginners; the Georgia scheme which is a comprehensive system of assessment of and improvement of competence, and the Jefferson County School District system which prepares teachers to conduct a detailed and prescribed curriculum.⁵⁶

Great Britain has experimented with several different models of support systems for beginning teachers.⁵⁷ The essence of these arrangements is that an experienced teacher works with or helps a beginning teacher. One form of such help is for the experienced teacher to observe the beginning teacher periodically and to make suggestions on how to improve. Another form is for the beginning teacher to seek out the experienced teacher whenever he or she needs help. A third arrangement is regular advisory sessions on teaching for beginning teachers conducted by experienced teachers.

At least one state has tied induction to the evaluation of and subsequent permanent certification of the beginning teacher. In the

⁵⁶ All programs have operational problems. Sometimes these result from defects in design. Others occur because some participants make mistakes, or resist doing their work, or because it takes time to learn new ways and to make new systems function smoothly. These considerations should be kept in mind in reading the descriptions which follow. We have pointed out problems which we saw or were told about, but we were not always able to ascertain why they were occurring.

⁵⁷ "Beginning teachers" in this context are those who have completed a teacher education program, usually a student teaching program, and have taken a regular teaching position. In the United States we found no comparable programs, but some beginning approximations to them.

State of Georgia each beginning teacher is evaluated regularly in the course of the first year and may be assigned to a master teacher for additional instruction. Only when they have demonstrated that they use stipulated teaching competencies are they permanently certified.

One of the attractive features of the Georgia system is that it is supported by the State, and the system provides a number of functions which most school districts either could not provide or could not provide well. The comprehensive and systematic evaluation of beginning teachers is a feature of this system which makes it particularly attractive as a diagnostic device for identifying the beginning teacher's problems. The availability of a master teacher for needed training is supported by the state. The state assumes that it is to its benefit to know how competent the beginning teacher is and to put the assessment of this competence in a context in which the teacher can be helped. Thus the initial investment in training the teacher will not be lost if the teacher can be helped, and the teacher will also have the opportunity to acquire skills that they may not have acquired during their pre-service period of training.

The Staff Academy Program For New Teachers:
Jefferson County School District R-I, Lakewood, Colorado

The Program for New Teachers provides inservice training for elementary, secondary and special education teachers. It is intended to help new teachers make an orderly transition from college to teaching the prescribed district curriculum.

A site visit by ETS staff to Jefferson County took place during October and November, 1979.⁵⁸ The interview team visited with Roice Horning, Executive Director of Staff Development Academy, Janice Metzdorf, Coordinator of the Staff Academy, Susan Schiff, Inservice Resource Teacher, four new elementary school teachers, two new high school teachers, two principals (a principal at the junior high level and an assistant principal at the elementary school level) and three curriculum specialists. The interview team also observed a New Teacher Inservice Program day at the Staff Academy.⁵⁹

History and Development

During the early 1970s, one of the ways the Jefferson County School District responded to the community concern about district accountability was to develop inservice activities to increase the quality of staff performance. The Staff Academy was organized within the Division of Instructional Services to develop and conduct this staff development program.

⁵⁸ Jefferson County Public Schools is a large, 790 square mile, suburban school district including the metropolitan area west of Denver, Colorado. It is the largest school district in Colorado, and about the 35th in the nation in the number of students enrolled.

Jefferson County is a community of well-educated, high-income residents. The 1970 census showed that the county was in the top 2 percent among all counties in the nation in median family income. One out of every five adults in the county has completed at least four years of college.

⁵⁹ Much of the background material for Jefferson was taken from documents supplied by Dr. Horning and his staff. Greater detail on this program is provided in Volume 2 of this study.

At a time when national test scores are declining, Jeffco students continue to make dramatic improvement in the basic skills. Comprehensive tests in reading, mathematics and language arts show that between two-thirds and three-fourths of the Jeffco students score above the national average, and the percentage of students scoring above the 75th percentile has continually increased. Jeffco attributes these results in part to the prescribed district curriculum in reading, mathematics, language arts, and social studies. All schools must follow the prescribed district curriculum.

Staff Development Programs

Recertification and advancement on the salary schedule is given to teachers who participate in and successfully complete Staff Development Activity Courses. One-half of the units required for advanced degrees can be earned in courses offered by the Staff Academy.

The Staff Academy uses research findings to identify areas of improvement of teaching skills. Two research studies were used to develop plans for assisting the approximately 100 new teachers who enter the district each year: Concerns-Based Adoption⁶⁰ (CBAM) and the Beginning Teacher Study.⁶¹ The staff is also designing a follow-up program for second and third-year probationary teachers who are "concerned with the impact they are having on their students" rather than the first-year teacher's preoccupation with "survival skills".

⁶⁰ Gene Hall and Associates, Research and Development Center, the University of Texas, Austin.

⁶¹ McDonald, F. J. and Elias, P., Educational Testing Service, Princeton and Berkeley, The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study: Phase II, 1976.

The staff of the Program for New Teachers is a three-person Staff Academy team which works in cooperation with other central-office staff to design all inservice and education programs in the district. The program for beginning teachers is primarily a program of workshops provided by curriculum specialists who act as "the arm of the Staff Academy."

All curriculum specialists and administrators base their staff development strategies on the seven key assumptions of CBAM:⁶²

1. Change in the schools is a process, not an event.
2. The individual needs to be the primary focus of intervention for change in the classroom.
3. Change is a highly personal experience.
4. Full description of the innovation in operation is a key variable.
5. There are identifiable stages and levels of the change process as experienced by individuals.
6. Inservice teacher training can be best facilitated for the individual by use of a client-centered diagnostic/prescriptive model.
7. The change facilitator needs to work in an adaptive/systematic way.

This program includes follow-up work with individual teachers.

New teachers also have available to them the services of twenty or so inservice training specialists. They assist new teachers with problems in classroom management, in contrast to the curriculum specialists who provide help on "how-to-do-it" with the Jeffco curriculum.

⁶²Note: The new curriculum is substantially in place. The Staff Academy approaches the problem of inducting new teachers as one of having them adopt a new curriculum rather than as a problem of giving technical training on skills which they need.

Program for New Elementary Teachers

The program for beginning elementary school teachers is designed to instruct teachers in the teaching of the basic skills: reading, language arts, and mathematics. Two-day workshops are conducted prior to the beginning of school in each of these areas. Following these inservice days, teachers have a planned orientation day with the building principal to familiarize them with school policies, procedures and materials. A fourth day includes a breakfast meeting with the superintendent, followed by a District Curriculum Orientation held at the Staff Academy.

A follow-up, full-day workshop on teaching the basic skills is conducted later in the fall to respond to teachers' problems, concerns and questions related to the teaching of reading, language arts and mathematics. Also included is a session on use of the Library Media Center at the Staff Academy. During the second semester, beginning elementary teachers are required to attend three all-day science workshop sessions.

Assistance and guidance for beginning elementary schools is primarily school-based. Principals assign "buddy teachers", usually at the same grade level, to be a resource person to the beginning teacher. Beginning teachers are also encouraged to contact curriculum specialists for assistance; however, with the exception of the science specialists, no planned follow-up services are scheduled through the Staff Academy.

Program for New Elementary Special Education Teachers

This induction program also focuses primarily on teaching the basic skills. Its purpose is to provide assistance to the new special

education teachers on the policies, procedures, record keeping and instructional techniques in special education, and to provide information regarding the resources available in their schools.

One day at the Staff Academy is devoted to general orientation to the role of the special education teacher; it is followed by two days of orientation to their schools, and a fourth day again at the Staff Academy working with curriculum specialists and special education personnel in learning about the curricula in the basic skills and adaptations for teaching handicapped children. Opportunity is also provided to meet with the superintendent during the two days of building-orientation.

Program for New Secondary Teachers

The purpose of this training is to provide assistance and support to the new teacher on school policies and procedures, building resources, curriculum, and lesson planning. Two days before school starts are devoted to orientation in the beginning teachers' schools by the principals and the new teachers' assigned "buddy teachers", usually the chairperson of their teaching subject department. Information is given to them about the student population, curriculum requirements, unit and lesson planning, materials available, and any specific help requested is responded to.

A third inservice day is planned immediately preceding the opening of school to meet with the superintendent and the curriculum coordinators to become informed about curriculum policies and procedures. Follow-up activities occur within the school and within departments unless teachers feel the need to contact curriculum coordinators.

Additional Inservice Training for New Teachers

All non-tenured teachers are strongly encouraged to participate in a course entitled, Library Media Services, K-12. The course is conducted in five sessions, and its purpose is to help teachers in understanding the role of the school library and media-specialists and to learn about the services available centrally in Library Media Services.

A school-based inservice course entitled, Language Arts/Written Composition, Elementary, is being phased in over a two-year period. At the discretion of the principal, all K-6 staff (library media specialists and special education teachers included) will be required to participate in this course.

A series of inservice course modules are being offered for inservice or college credit in the late afternoons at convenient locations. Teachers are expected to give these modules first choice in their professional growth programs.

Evaluation Of The New Teacher Programs⁶³

Participants in all new teacher inservice programs are asked routinely to complete questionnaires rating the degree of help provided by curriculum workshops and school building inservice activities. Most responses were very positive.⁶⁴

⁶³ Notes from interviews with personnel of the Staff Academy, beginning teachers, mentors and principals are included in Volume 2, pp. 158 ff. These conversations included both descriptive, explanatory and evaluative comments. They are rich sources of information about this program.

⁶⁴ Samples of summarizations of teacher ratings and comments about the initial and follow-up workshops in basic skills are at the end of the Jeffco report in Volume II. Also included is an evaluation of the basic skills follow-up for special education teachers.

Beginning Teacher' Comments To Site Team⁶⁵

Two "new" high school and four elementary school teachers were interviewed to gather data about the beginning teacher's perceptions of their problems and the ways in which the inservice program addresses these problems and needs. All but one of the teachers had been a substitute teacher in the district.⁶⁶ They saw as the problems of beginning-
teachers:

- o Needing help with discipline--setting and keeping the rules
- o Needing assistance in finding available materials; selecting and ordering new materials
- o Needing administrative support, especially with student-related problems
- o Needing to know how to use audiovisual equipment
- o Not receiving help from other teachers at the same grade level
- o Feeling overwhelmed with the "burden of the complex curriculum"
- o Needing to know what was going on in the school; e.g., times of staff meetings
- o Not knowing about the many services offered by the district
- o Feeling uncomfortable about not knowing other teachers
- o Having their philosophy and ideas accepted by other teachers

⁶⁵ We include here a condensation of the comments of the beginning teachers whom we interviewed because they show clearly what their problems are and the kind of help they need.

⁶⁶ Some teachers are new to Jeffco but may have taught one or more years. The complex curriculum, however, is somewhat like starting over for these teachers. Those who had been substitutes were beginning full-time teaching; they were like graduates of internships.

- o Trying to work effectively despite "track rivalry" attitudes of other teachers
- o Having too many classroom interruptions
- o Having difficulties evaluating students' progress
- o Needing assistance in knowing how to involve parents
- o Needing suggestions in how to work with administration and teacher aides.

When asked what would help the beginning teacher:

- o Provide more inservice curriculum workshops prior to teaching.
- o More inservice days continuing throughout the year.
- o More follow-up in school on the curriculum.
- o Have a directory of services available to all new teachers.
- o Describe what the school system has to offer; suggest persons to talk to for different kinds of help.
- o Set up a day to bring in resource people to meet teachers' requests for assistance.
- o Have someone at each school responsible for helping the new person know what is available, where things are, and procedures for getting and using them.
- o Provide emotional and instructional support by being assigned a "buddy teacher." (Apparently this did not happen in all cases.)
- o Have the school administrative staff make a concerted effort to be helpful to and supportive of the beginning teacher.
- o Offer suggestions to beginning teachers on organization and classroom management; e.g., establishing rules.

Summary

The inservice program for new teachers in Jefferson County deals primarily with the teaching of or implementation of highly developed,

prescribed curricula in the basic skills and in science. The emphasis on pupil achievement of objectives requires special assistance for new teachers in diagnosing children's abilities and level of achievement, in planning, organizing, and implementing instruction, and in evaluating pupils and keeping careful records.

Everyone agrees that the inservice program is relevant and very useful to new teachers. The most frequent request was for more of the same. Teachers also requested workshops related to the problems which beginning teachers encounter with children, parents, and administration, as well as with teaching the curricula.

Induction as Preparing Teachers to Teach A Specific Curriculum⁶⁷

The purpose of the JEFFCO program is to induct beginning and teachers new to the system by training them to teach the curriculum. It is not a program which identifies the particular kinds of problems which these beginners might have irrespective of the curriculum they are teaching. It does not identify and remediate their deficiencies in teaching skills. It is unequivocally and exclusively a program to teach each new teacher how to teach the specific curriculum of that district.

Learning to teach this new curriculum is no small task. The objectives and content have been specified in considerable detail; approaches and strategies to teaching and evaluation, and specific materials which need to be used have been developed. It is a carefully designed and

⁶⁷ The reader who wishes to obtain details about Jeffco's curriculum is referred to Volume Two in this series where the Jefferson County program is described in detail, and to Volume Four where the names of people who may be contacted about it are listed.

graded program which permits children to proceed at different rates, which requires the use of a variety of materials and strategies carefully prescribed and which requires the teacher to do considerable assessing of pupils' progress and to keep detailed records of this progress.

There is no easy way to estimate how quickly a teacher could learn to teach this curriculum. Some of the teachers said they had grasped the basic idea in one subject area within a month of sessions which would be about four full days. Eventually all teachers were rotated through all strands which they had to teach. Grasping the basic idea of the curriculum, however, does not mean that the teacher is either efficient or comfortable in teaching it.

The training sessions were conducted by the curriculum supervisors, and were conducted for an entire day. A certain amount of comradery seemed to have developed among the beginning teachers even though they were teaching in different schools dispersed in a very large physical area. But the program was not designed to stimulate the mutual self-help which might result from it (nor did it discourage it).

Some teachers were having difficulties, some were not. The difficulties were more frequent in some curriculum areas because the supervisors differed in their skills for helping on specific instructional, "straight", teaching problems, such as class management. If a teacher was having such difficulties, they were likely to get help only if a particular supervisor saw solving that problem as essential to implementing the curriculum. But other inservice specialists were available to help with management and organizational problems and problems with pupils (but none of the beginning teachers we interviewed appeared to know they existed.)

A "buddy" system was also to be in place but was not in every school as yet.⁶⁸

A carefully defined curriculum, with its objectives spelled out, its materials suggested or available, with the teaching strategies and evaluation schemes developed for teachers is a boon to them because it simplifies their planning problems. One teacher expressed great satisfaction that so much of the work was prescribed for her because she knew what to do from day-to-day, and as we have seen, beginning teachers frequently have a problem in this respect.

Those supervisors who provided help on such problems as classroom management were particularly valued by the beginning teachers. There is no question that there was a subgroup of beginning teachers who wanted and needed this kind of help and were very appreciative of it when they received it, even though the well-planned curriculum solved some important problems for them.

The Jefferson County program is an excellent example of one kind of an induction program. It is a kind that is best run by a school district. The prescribed curriculum clearly solves one problem for some beginning teachers, the problem of being prepared to teach on an extended basis. It also places them in a setting which probably helps them solve another problem, namely talking to parents about childrens' performance. The

⁶⁸ The program's design obviously provides administratively for the kind of help a beginner particularly needs. Our impression was that such a major effort was underway to get the new curriculum in place that the specific problems of beginning teachers, a small portion of the teachers, were not as routinely attended to as the problems of implementation of the curriculum.

program is weak in providing help on basic teaching skills--the kind all effective teachers must have. This weakness is obviously remediable

The Program of the State of Georgia

The program in the State of Georgia is a comprehensive program designed to achieve several different goals. It is a combination of assessment, instructional improvement and certification strategies.

All beginning teachers in the State of Georgia are probationary or apprentice teachers. Each of these beginning teachers must have passed a criterion-referenced test of subject knowledge before they begin to teach. They must also have been recommended for certification by their college or university, a recommendation based on a general assessment of their competence to teach.⁶⁹

The state, through a careful program of research and development, has identified fourteen basic teaching competencies which are described by forty-five indicators.⁷⁰ Beginning teachers must give evidence that they possess each of these competencies to a specified criterion level. The beginning teacher is evaluated early in the first year and at several points from then on until they reach this criterion level on each of the competencies.

⁶⁹ Those who meet these requirements are awarded a three-year non-renewable teaching certificate. If they meet additional criteria, described in the following paragraphs, within three years, they are awarded a permanent certificate.

⁷⁰ This history was provided by Dr. Lester Solomon, Georgia State Department of Education, the state officer who managed the development of this program.

The assessment of the competence of the beginning teacher is carried out through seventeen regional assessment centers. These regional assessment centers' staffs gather data on each beginning teacher. They make prescriptions for additional training which, if followed, will help these teachers achieve the criterion levels of competence. The assessors are called "external data collectors."

The beginning teacher is also evaluated on the same competencies by his or her school administrator and by a peer teacher who is referred to as a "master teacher" and who is certified in the same area as the beginning teacher being assessed. Each beginning teacher is followed by these three different individuals, and these three must agree on the level of competence achieved by the beginner and on what kinds of remedies are needed when the criterion of competence has not been achieved. All three evaluators are trained in the assessment process.

Some people might question whether the competencies were relevant to whether or not the beginning teacher succeeded. Another question is whether they are the competencies one needs to master the transition period into teaching. The state funded several different projects whose purpose was to identify and test the validity of certain kinds of teaching competencies. This task was done in several different ways. One project located in Dekalb County organized a group of experienced teachers who described an original set of essential competencies. Then research studies investigated how these competencies related to pupil achievement. A basic set of competencies was refined out of this research and these were recommended to be used in the planned assessment program.

A similar project was developed in Carrollton County. Here a group of experts in research on teaching worked with teacher educators and teachers to develop a research project. Several measures of teaching performances were simultaneously correlated with certain kinds of pupil achievement outcomes. Out of this work they developed a comprehensive assessment system of teaching performance based on these evaluated competencies.

The state, working with panels of experts in teaching research and teacher education and experienced teachers and administrators, combined the results of these research efforts to develop the final set of fourteen competencies and the forty-five indicators. At the same time, the state began the development of its assessment centers. By 1975 it was ready to create a number of demonstration centers which would test out the basic ideas of the assessment program. Four of these were created around the state. These demonstration centers basically "debugged" the program. By 1979, the program was in place on a state-wide basis and is today being carried out through seventeen regional assessment centers.

The system of prescriptions which are used when the beginning teacher does not meet a specified level of competence include a variety of remedies. The system is a diagnostic-prescriptive system so no one procedure is automatically used. The beginning teacher may be assigned to work closely with a master teacher who will instruct the trainee in the particular competencies in which he or she is deficient. Or the trainee may go to some agency such as a college of education for the prescribed relevant training.

The state has been developing this program for almost a decade. The development began in 1972 and 1973, largely as a response to cries for accountability, but also because the state wished to establish a new system of teacher education and certification. The earliest phase consisted in the development of the research projects which we described above. At that time the state funded these research projects at about \$250,000 per year. Within four years the state had created the four demonstration centers which were the prototypes of the regional assessment centers. At this point the state's investment rose to \$750,000.

The programs are now supported at the rate of about 2.6 million dollars a year. These funds are used to support the regional assessment centers and the training activities; the state, for example, provides the money to release the master teachers to work with the beginning teachers.

This program was developed, as all teacher education programs seem to be, to make highly effective professional teachers, to get the best possible teachers for children that the state could get through means which the state could control. Obviously producing highly effective and professional teachers happens only when the beginning teachers master the problems of the transition period.

Does the program obviate, alleviate, or remedy the problems of the transition into teaching for beginning teachers? Has this system eliminated these problems? It is believed that it has, but the factual data are limited. This program has some of the best features of induction schemes. Also the competencies required are the elements of effective teaching,

including those skills necessary to solving the problems which beginners must master.

This program is an interesting contrast the Jefferson County program. These programs could be compared and evaluated in terms of their effects on the immediate success of the beginning teacher in mastering the transition. Since both programs have been in place for a number of years, their long-term effects on teachers could also be studied. Components and characteristics of each program could be compared to identify those components which contribute to their respective effects.

The British Induction Programs

The British have been concerned since the James report in 1972 about the transition from preservice training into full-time teaching. The James report had itself been preceded by a definitive study of the probationary year.⁷¹ The James report had recommended that first-year teachers be given one day a week to go to Teacher Centers where they would receive additional instruction on teaching. But this plan could not be fully carried out because of a lack of funds, so pilot projects were developed to test practical ways of carrying out the report's recommendations. In 1973 two pilot schemes for induction were funded, one in Liverpool and one in Northumberland.

The essence of the scheme in Liverpool was that, where sufficient numbers justified the arrangement, teacher-tutors were appointed in each

⁷¹Taylor & Dale, 1971, op. cit.

school from among the members of its staff (nursery schools were served by "peripatetic teacher-tutors"). Each teacher-tutor worked with six to eight beginning teachers. The beginning teachers were released from approximately 25% of a teaching load for this instruction.

This instruction was organized and supervised by the teacher-tutor. The beginning teacher also attended a Professional Center at least one day a week. Here they took courses on the subjects they were teaching and "general professional matters". They consulted their teacher-tutor as often as they felt the need. (Teacher-tutors are now called "mentors.")

The program extended through three years, but the amount of time available for this training was reduced in succeeding years. In the second year, for example, the beginning teacher worked with the teacher-tutor more and attended the Professional Center only one day a week. In the third year the beginning teacher attended the Center for only one-half day every week and spent the remaining half-day on activities arranged by his or her school.

In Northumberland, which is a large rural county, each school with a beginning teacher appointed one of its staff as a teacher-tutor to help the beginning teacher and to coordinate an in-school induction program. The new teachers had three-quarters of a day of release-time for induction activities and one-and-a-half days for what are called "block release courses". There was also some in-school work. The program was extended over three years.

These two schemes were a combination of direct personal instruction from a teacher-tutor and classwork taken outside of the school. Some course work was taught in schools or colleges of education. These

colleges provided evaluators of the pilot projects. They also trained teacher-tutors, (who received varying amounts of training).

Evaluation of the Induction Schemes

The experience obtained from conducting these pilot programs and their evaluation is reported in a volume entitled, "The Teacher Induction Pilot Scheme" (TIPS Project).⁷² This report states that the findings confirmed what investigators had found in earlier studies: that the "overwhelming concern of most probationers is with the practicalities of their own teaching situation". The investigators recommend eight aims which an induction program should have. They recommend, for example, providing relevant information and advice about their school; about their LEA; and about their personal situation outside school (transport, accommodations, social facilities). They recommend providing specific knowledge and advice about teaching techniques. These programs should promote professional growth and development and not simply survival. These recommendations describe a program whose purposes are primarily practical but which lays a base for future development.

The teacher-tutor played a critical role in these programs; in fact, is the core of the scheme (in our opinion). The recommendations on the teacher-tutor were that the teacher-tutor should be appointed from the school staff in which the beginning teacher was located. To insure that this role becomes a functional and responsible one, the report recommends paying the tutor on a recognized scale (and not on an ad hoc or per

⁷² Bolam, Baker, & McMann, 1979.

capita basis). It is recommended that they be given two periods of "contact-time" per beginning teacher in each week, and that they be responsible for no more than four beginning teachers in one year. They are to be part of a professional development team to be led by the deputy head or heads.

Their primary function is to be training and not, as the report calls it, "pastoral"; to provide a real service not merely comfort and support. Some interesting variations on this role are suggested for primary schools, such as: the tutor should normally be the deputy head". The goal of these suggestions is to base the tutor's position on a substantial role and to make it a recognized position in the school.

One of the problems which developed was the relation between the teacher-tutor and the advisors in the local education agency which is a position like that of supervisors in school systems in this country. Here the conflict, which might have been anticipated and is certainly understandable, was over the evaluation of the beginning teacher. The teacher-tutor did not have a formal role in the evaluation of the beginning teacher, whereas the advisor did. Apparently there were differences of opinion about the evaluations made of the beginning teachers.

The report recommended linking the induction program to the assessment of the probationary period, a time when the beginning teacher is assessed by the local education agency. The evaluation report recommends that they be visited at least once each term or three times in all. The observers of these beginning teachers should provide them with feedback and the results of the assessment decision should be given to them. The induction program is obviously an independent way of helping the beginning

teacher move through this probationary period successfully.⁷³

Considerable emphasis in the report is given to improving the training of tutors, and it is recommended that this training be on-going. The training ought to be focussed around clinical supervision and interpersonal communication.

The report also recommends national policies whose effect would be to make the induction program an integral feature of the teacher education program. These recommendations include making the 75% teaching load standard for all beginning teachers and for institutionalizing the teacher-tutor role.

The evaluation data indicates that the program was successful in the sense that all the participants, people associated with it, and observers of it regarded it as a very successful way of inducting teachers into the educational system. The research methods used in the evaluation, however, did not include direct observations of the beginning teachers or their tutors on any extensive scale so that it is not possible to conclude that these induction schemes actually produced more effective teachers or eliminated or alleviated the problem of beginning teachers.

The beginning teachers, however, in substantial numbers rated the program as being particularly effective in achieving certain of its aims, such as providing information about the school, helping improve their teaching techniques, and forming sound professional relationships.⁷⁴

⁷³ Note here the combining of extended training with assessment of competence. The Georgia scheme is one model of how to make this combination. The British proposal is another.

⁷⁴ See Bolam, Baker, and McMann, 1979.

These data are categorized by whether these aims were achieved by their internal program, that is, through their tutors and in-school programs, or by the external programs, that is, the programs conducted in the professional centers or the colleges of education. The ratings of the internal programs were much higher than those of the external program with one exception. The external program was rated as being more effective in achieving the aim of providing information about the local education agency.

These differences are not surprising because they seem so much like what beginning teachers in this country say. The beginning teacher needs information about the school and about specific techniques of teaching which can be used in that school. Other information of a more general character is universally regarded by beginning teachers as not very helpful. This analysis suggests again that the attempt to broaden the perspectives of the beginning teachers beyond their own immediate needs is probably not very effective during the early stages of their development--until they mastered the transition into teaching.

The beginning teachers rated various activities by how helpful they were. Among the external activities the one rated most highly was "a visit to other schools". The internal activities which were highly rated were, in order, the additional free time in school, the teacher-tutor, individual discussions with the tutor, observing colleagues teaching, and working on the syllabus for a program or a course. Fifty to 85% of the beginning teachers rated these particular components of their program as effective in helping them.

We repeat: the criteria of effectiveness used here is whether or not the beginning teachers thought that they were helped. This criterion is an important one, but we ought also to apply in these evaluations such other criteria as achieved teaching effectiveness, reduction in severity of problems, and facility in assuming complex teaching tasks.

Conclusions About the British Induction Schemes

The extensive data on the British schemes suggests that certain kinds of problems are likely to be encountered in the development of such schemes. The critical problem, however, which the evaluation leaves unaddressed, is the extent to which the deficiencies of the preservice program necessitates the development of the induction scheme. The British have taken it for granted that assistance during this transition is necessary. But we think it is still an unanswered question as to whether or not the preservice program could be designed to obviate some of these problems and eliminate or alleviate others. We also found the absence of a role in any of these programs for the colleges of education a striking omission, but not necessarily a defect.

Two results in the evaluation should be particularly noted. Providing some basic information about the school, its program, and where things are, is highly valued. It ought to be easy enough to find out what beginners need and want to know. The best way to find out is to ask them.

Beginning teachers vary considerably in how much help they seek from their mentors. The reasons for these variations ought to be determined. (One may be the perceived skill of the mentor.)

Most of the problems reported about these programs can be remedied. Tutor-mentors can be trained. Some of the more theoretical training and information which is not immediately needed can be postponed or worked into other programs. These identified problems should not be taken as inherent limitations in induction schemes.

But lack of training for mentors is a more serious problem which if not remedied could lead to more criticisms of the program. Their functions cannot expand without further training nor will some of the most important goals of the program be achieved if the mentors do not develop special skills in training teachers.

THE POLICY ISSUES OF THE TRANSITION PERIOD

Who will be responsible for developing ways of resolving the problems of beginning teachers? What are effective ways of eliminating these problems or reducing considerably their impact on the beginner's transition into teaching?

The first question is primarily, perhaps exclusively, a political question. It is a question of authority and responsibility. It is a policy question. The second question asks about effective means for solving a problem. The answer to this question requires empirical study of what problems teachers have and how various methods of assisting them with these problems work in terms of such criteria as reducing the severity of a problem, eliminating a problem, or providing a way of solving it while it is occurring. Such questions are technical questions.

There are both policy and technical problems which must be resolved about programs for beginning teachers. Both political and technical strategies for solving these problems must be developed.

Why is policy making a topic for discussion and analysis when we are considering the problems of beginning teachers? Is policy making necessary? Is it desirable? Perhaps this problem would benefit by being ignored. Perhaps the solution to the problem should be kept open by permitting anyone interested in the problem to attempt a solution.

Our answer to these questions is the following. The problems of beginning teachers occur because the beginning teachers appear to be unable to cope easily and effectively with the transition into teaching. How beginning teachers cope with this transition determines the kinds of teachers they will be for much of their professional careers. If, therefore, most teachers are having difficulties with this period, and if these difficulties may seriously limit their potentialities as teachers, then the problems of the transition period must be addressed by agencies responsible for the quality of education.

But at the present time no agency has assumed the formal responsibility for helping beginning teachers master the transition. Therefore there are unresolved policy problems. Beginning teachers will receive only random and sporadic help in making the transition into teaching until these policy issues are resolved.

The Major Policy Issues and Problems

There are three major policy issues or problems. The first of these is the issue or problem of authority and responsibility. A second policy

question is who must be involved or should be involved in the development of the goals of programs and the elaboration of accepted procedures for attaining these goals. The third policy question is who will provide the fiscal resources for these programs.

The Issue of Authority and Responsibility

The first and primary issue is, who will be responsible for solving this problem. Each of the three agencies, the state, local school districts and county agencies, and training institutions, could now set some policies on strategies and programs for preparing or helping the beginning teacher. But who should set the larger policies and take responsibility for their implementation.

The value of having the State develop a policy is that it is a policy for all teacher candidates in the state. The same standards for training and evaluation are maintained in different places in the state, so that equity is insured. Also, the state may enlarge the possibilities for training through the resources which it can make available; the State of Georgia, for example, is investing 2.6 million dollars annually in its program.

Local taxes cannot be used easily to support these programs. Not all districts have the resources to allot sufficient monies for a program for its beginning teachers. Citizens might well perceive such allotments as an unwarranted diversion from direct services to children; others, as a frill. Others will argue that the colleges should have better prepared these teachers, and that incompetents should be eliminated as quickly as possible.

The arguments against the state taking the lead in policy making is the usual case against extending state authority over local authority. The practical question however, is: should the state interpose its authority in the area of beginning teachers' problems? Usually three principles are invoked in answering such questions: is the problem prevalent in local agencies; does it affect other aspects of education for which the state is responsible; can the local agencies solve the problem? The answers to these questions support the necessity for the state taking the major responsibility for developing the policies to solve the problem.

The Role of the Training Institutions

Some think that the colleges should extend their programs into the years of beginning teaching. The internship is one model of what might be done in that respect; the University of Oregon program is an example.

The implementation of this model for all teacher trainees would require some form of state action to put it in place in the system of teacher education. The training institutions influence each other by persuasion or the power of demonstration, and as is apparent in the history of teacher education particularly, this power is notably weak. Other institutions do not imitate the innovators; some do, most do not. Even the notably successful demonstrations of the values and effects of internships have not been imitated.

Another argument against relying on the training institution to stimulate widespread development and implementation of a strategy for solving the problems of beginning teachers is that teacher-education

programs live in an economy of scarcity where they must compete for the university's or college's resources with other fiercely competitive departments. Some training institutions simply would not be able to mount an innovative program even if they wanted to because their institution would not provide the necessary resources.

The Role of Local School Districts

The case for using local districts to develop programs for the beginning teacher rests on three different arguments. First is the commonly-held view that experienced and local teachers and administrators are best equipped to help the new school teacher in their system. The second argument is that the beginning teacher is an employee of the local system, will be evaluated by that school system, and expects to obtain tenure in it; therefore, the school system has a stake in how that teacher makes the transition and ought to be responsible for assisting the beginning teacher. The third argument is that in any case the beginning teacher will have to adapt to the local curricula which are particularistic in character and therefore, specific local programs will be most helpful.

The arguments against turning this problem over to local systems are equally persuasive but of a different character. First, the school district must use its resources primarily for the education of the children in the district. Although it may be argued that improving the effectiveness of teachers in the schools is to the benefit of children,

it will appear as if the school district is supplying training which the colleges ought to have provided. The second argument is that the districts cannot uniformly mount the resources for constructing such programs. The third argument is that their interests in assisting the new teacher may be too parochial.

Conclusions

The basic conclusion of this analysis is that the states should develop the strategies and programmatic schemes for solving the problems of beginning teachers. We see no other way in which such programs are likely to be mounted for all beginning teachers. Training institutions and local school districts can be the sites for the development and implementation of such programs, and obviously should participate in the development of particular parts or forms of programs.

Organizational Interests in Programs for Beginning Teachers

There are three groups which obviously have an interest and a stake in how this particular problem is solved. First, and perhaps of most importance, are the teacher organizations in each state because any programs that are undertaken affect both the character and quality of their members and their conditions of work. Programs involving the use of experienced teachers may impose burdens on these experienced teachers for which they are not recompensed adequately, either in time or money. The teacher organizations may not want their teachers to assume the major responsibility for the development of beginning teachers, or they may

want to protect their teachers from being exploited. The teacher organizations must protect contractual agreements and benefits won by bargaining.

There is resistance to the participation of teacher organizations in decisions about the training of teachers. Historically, teachers in their organizational role have not participated in these decisions or have done so only in very limited ways. Because training programs are closely tied to the achievement of certificates or licenses, the decisions about these programs are still regarded in many quarters as belonging to the training institutions. It seems to us that these attitudes can be maintained only if one ignores the genuine stake that teacher organizations have in the quality of the entrants to the profession.

The training institutions have an interest in what happens to their graduates, insofar as evaluations of their graduates reflect back on the programs which they have developed and because they have expertise in training teachers and a broad and enlarging conception of the role of a teacher. Training institutions might be expected to oppose programs which suggest or imply that the original training was inadequate. They are particularly sensitive to shifting training responsibilities to school districts because the conclusion might be drawn that they themselves could not carry this responsibility adequately and competently. Training institutions fear the demise of their programs if others take over aspects of them or if others seem to be able to mount adequate substitutes or better programs.

If the program for beginning teachers is to be mounted in a local district, the district will want to insure that it is relevant to their

needs. They are also not likely to forego their evaluation function which will somehow have to be integrated into any program for beginners (recall the British experience). The local school systems see themselves as employers, and see the selection of the best teachers as one of their primary responsibilities.

Obviously all three groups must have a major role in developing programs for beginning teachers.

The Issue of Fiscal Responsibility

Obviously the state is the only real source of the needed fiscal resources for programs for beginning teachers. It is impossible to estimate how much such programs might cost except to go by the current experience of Georgia, which is spending approximately 2.6 million dollars. But it should be remembered that this program includes an extensive program of evaluation as well as training and is directed to insuring that teachers have a broad range of competencies. The program continues the development of professional competence and is not directed to just the problems which teachers experience initially. It may be possible to mount a cheaper program if the purposes are more limited in scope.

The costs of these programs obviously depend on their design. But the largest expense will be for the training personnel and for released time allotted to the beginners for participating in a program. Other expenses might include materials and consultants. It is therefore relatively easy to estimate the approximate cost of a program by deciding how many beginning teachers will be assigned to each trainer/mentor/tutor.

Cost considerations should take into account the expenses now being incurred in recruiting, selecting and evaluating teachers who do not remain in the district because they are not succeeding. The "true" cost of an induction program is the actual allotted costs minus this cost.

It is also not fanciful to think that if teachers could be helped through the transition to become reasonably effective teachers, other savings will accrue. The cost of testing, special programs for failing students, and other remedies necessitated in part by ineffective teaching should be considerably reduced.

A PROPOSAL FOR A RESEARCH AND EVALUATION PROGRAM

This section describes research needed to describe more precisely the nature of the problems of beginning teachers, to understand their causes, and to determine how this phase of the teachers' development affects their subsequent development as professionals. It also describes how procedures, methods and programs for assisting the beginning teacher, either through preservice training or through on-the-job assistance programs, may be evaluated. This section sketches an outline of the major directions of a research and evaluation program designed to achieve these goals.

It also describes policy studies which ought to be made to inform policy makers to help them make decisions about the kinds of programs which ought to be developed and supported.

The Importance of Describing Beginning Teachers'
Problems Accurately and Thoroughly

We have described our present state of knowledge concerning the problems of beginning teachers, their causes and remedies. The general conclusion from these facts is that we know very little about these problems except that they are painful. The obvious first step, therefore, is to develop a research program to improve this knowledge in three important respects.

First, as important as it is to know that beginning teachers suffer fear, anxiety, and even trauma, it is even more important to know the precise nature of those fears, anxieties and traumas. It is useful to know that beginning teachers have problems in managing classes, an almost universally accepted fact. But we know practically nothing about how they arise, what exacerbates them, how they may be alleviated, and how they affect the teacher's professional competence and development. A precise description of these and other problems and difficulties is necessary for a fuller understanding of how and why they occur and what can be done to alleviate them or to prevent their occurrence. Can sensible judgments be made about what to do about the problems of beginning teachers without better descriptions and greater understanding of what these problems are?

How to Use Descriptive Methodologies to
Describe Beginning Teachers' Problems

Samples of beginning teachers should be followed through the first several years of teaching—from the time that they have been selected for

a position in a particular school system to the end of their second or third year of teaching (at least). Several independent samples should be used so that the generality of the identifications and characteristics of problems will be tested. In this way the extent of these problems and the contextual factors which influence them may also be assessed. If several samples of beginners were studied over time and in depth, we would be able to study the development and progression of their problems, how resolving them helps resolve others, and how the severity of a problem may increase if and when it is not solved.

The most critical period of the transition may be the first week or month, as it appears to be now, and once this period is mastered, the beginner may learn quickly. Perhaps only certain kinds of beginners have the full range of problems. Some problems may not be as severe as others.

The data-gathering methods will be primarily observing and interviewing the beginning teachers. Observations will provide the data on how the teacher teaches, how the students treat the teacher, and what the teaching environment and support system of the teacher is like. Interviewing will tell us how the teacher is thinking and feeling, how he or she perceives what is happening to them, and how they make teaching decisions.

These arrays of information are then categorized and interrelated. The result is a descriptive topology of the domain of beginning, with its salient features demarcated. This map is necessary to conducting a second phase.

A Strategy for Identifying the Causes of the Beginning Teachers' Problems

Speculations or proposals to help beginning teachers assume that we understand why these problems develop. But we have done very little research on these causes, and this lack of understanding is the major reason why our programs are ineffectual. We need a way of learning about the causes of these problems quickly and efficiently.

We propose the following strategy as one approach. It is an effective method for precise and valid identification of causes of problems, but also the most difficult to carry out. It requires imagination and a certain amount of cleverness in experimental design. What we are proposing is well within the state of the art, though this strategy is rarely followed, if ever, in education.

The strategy works like this: begin with one kind of problem precisely defined; for example, an aspect of what is now called the "management problem". Through our in-depth studies (described above) we will have identified the components of this problem. Knowing these, we then create two or three potential ways of eliminating that problem by making changes in these components. We next design an experiment to compare their effectiveness.

Assume that we have observed that there are three components of the "management problem": 1) skill in giving directions; 2) ability to perceive potentially disturbing or disruptive actions; 3) perceptions of students as more or less threatening to the teacher. Teachers who give clear and simple directions, quickly detect potential disruptions, and do not see students as terribly threatening or hostile seem to be better

managers--assume this is what our in-depth descriptive studies suggest. We can train or assist teachers on one or more of these components.

The experimental paradigm would have all possible treatments--three involving training or assistance on one component, three on two components, and one on all three components. Since there may not be enough beginners to fill the design, a series of successive experiments may be required.⁷⁵

The criterion in these experiments is low frequency of management problems (presumably our descriptive studies will have given us the appropriate measures and adequate information about frequency and course). The teachers will vary in the degree to which they possess and acquire one or more of these components, and the level at which they use them. The experiment will tell us which component or combinations of them makes the most difference. The possible results can be visualized by thinking about such questions as: will the teachers who are most skillful in giving directions have the fewest management problems; or will the teachers who quickly detect potential disruption and also do not see their pupils as hostile and threatening?

A series of well-designed experiments, each testing no less than five hypotheses, hypotheses derived from careful descriptive observations, should identify the causes of beginners problems well enough to start building programs which remediate or prevent overwhelming problems. But to be successful this strategy must work through a series of interdependent and alternative hypotheses, eliminating and confirming step-by-step.

⁷⁵Fractional factorial designs are an efficient way of doing such experiments.

We are proposing here a series of interconnected and interrelated experimental studies which assess prevention or assistance strategies or techniques and combinations of them.

We think that if there were five critical problems of beginning teachers, sufficient progress could be made with a set of five, at most ten experiments which would provide a solid basis for developing effective preventive or assistance strategies.

One way in which greater power from this research strategy may be achieved is to include experienced teachers in these experimental programs. There are teachers who have deficiencies which were not eliminated in training or were not corrected in the early years of induction into the profession. Through such agencies as Teacher Centers it would be possible to mount strategies for helping these teachers and their strategies could be built into the experimental designs for studying how to help beginning teachers.

The main advantage of including strategies for working with experienced teachers is that the power of a test of an assistance method would be much greater. Different kinds of practical arrangements for providing assistance methods could also be tried out in the context of a real school system. Moreover, the participating teachers are likely to make special contributions both to the development of a solution and to its improvement because many of them will be able to think about their problems without the anxieties and trauma which the beginning teacher is experiencing.

Correlational Analyses of Causes of Beginning Teachers' Problems

Despite the poor press that correlational studies are routinely given by educational researchers, correlational methods have been developed to such a point that it is possible to identify potential causes with sufficient surety so that a more refined and powerful experimental program can be mounted. Or, if it is not possible to mount an experimental program, it will still be possible through these correlational studies to make reasonable judgments about probable causes, and these inferences can be tested by trial and error to ameliorate or eliminate the causes.

In this type of study the dependent variable is the kinds of problems the beginning teachers are having. The next step is to identify categories of potential causes and to gather data for each of the teachers in the cohort about the occurrences of these potential causes in their lives. Such categories include features of their training programs, characteristics of the beginners themselves, and characteristics of the context in which they are teaching. At this stage, the best that can be done is to think of as many variables as can be measured reasonably well. We have no guiding theories of any genuine substance or meaning that would enable us to eliminate some variables.

We now have, therefore, a set of independent variables, and perhaps a much smaller group of dependent variables, namely the problems of beginning teachers. Cohorts of beginning teachers in a variety of places and contexts would be chosen and information on all of these variables gathered on each of these individuals.

From this point on the study, once the data have been gathered, is a quantitative-analytic study. The steps are well known, beginning with the development of the correlation matrix. A preliminary step of doing cluster analyses or non-metric scaling or factor analyses of the variables should seriously be considered to reduce their number and to see if there are meaningful clusters of them. The investigator is then ready to construct the basic correlation matrix.

Several different methods of multivariate analysis are available, such as multiple regression and stepwise regressions. These analyses usually produce, if there are any interrelations in the data, some patterns which would enable the investigator to state which variables contribute most to a prediction of the occurrence, the frequency or the severity of the problems which are the dependent variables.

We recommend also the use of more complex methods of proceeding to comprehensive causal analyses. Path analysis and similar partial correlational methods are becoming more frequently used in educational research, are widely known and are strongly recommended for this kind of research. A number of models of the interdependencies among these categories of variables could be generated and each of these could be tested by path-analyses methods.

Only experimental methods give us highly valid information about causal relations. But as a first step we can detect the major sources of potential causes in this study, and if methods like path analysis are used, we will have eliminated any number of competing rival hypotheses about the causal relations impinging on a particular variable. The

severity of a particular problem, for example, would be shown to be a function or not a function of the amount of previous training on skills relevant to the problem or the amount of prior experience with the problem or the anxiety-proneness of the individual teacher.

The correlational strategy is usually the best strategy as a first step or first phase, if it is followed by experiments derived from what is learned in this phase. But if the integration of this first phase into the experimental phase is lost, then there is hardly any point in doing a first stage as comprehensive as the one proposed here. Its value is that it can make a second stage of experimental studies more meaningful and more precise.

Collecting, Creating and Testing Solutions

We think that collecting potential solutions and evaluating them is a research strategy which might be useful as a source of ideas which could be tested more carefully in experimental work or which might provide independent variables in a correlational-analytic study of beginning teachers' problems. We would first identify places where programs are focussed on particular problems of beginning teachers (or the similar or identical problems of experienced teachers). We then develop studies around such an on-going project so that we can understand its influences on how beginning teachers resolve their problems. A relatively small number of studies of this kind might yield very practical information as well as evaluative data.

Studies of the Long-Term Professional Development of Teachers

Any comprehensive research program ought to observe teachers at three different stages: one, during the preservice period; two, during the transition period; and three, at one or more points in time after that.

Studies of development reveal regularities across contexts. They describe what teachers are like at major points in their careers. We can estimate frequency with which certain kinds of problems, changes, crises occur and the circumstances in which they are most likely to occur. The influence of life-events on the teacher's development can also be identified. In these studies we can learn how the transition period affects long-term professional development.

Policy Research

An important set of studies should be conducted on the policy issues related to helping beginning teachers. We think that these studies should be initiated at the same time as intensive studies of the problems of beginning teachers, or experimental studies of the causes of the problems of beginning teachers, or the evaluation studies which we suggested above.

The first set of policy questions which need to be answered pertain to who will be responsible for developing these programs. What would be the consequences, the costs and benefits, if teachers' organizations were responsible for programs of beginning teachers or if their assistance were allocated primarily to the local school districts? Should the

university have a continuing role to play in programs for beginning teachers? What kinds of tasks and responsibilities can be assigned to these different organizations? What kinds of cooperative systems might be built? Should these various programs be linked or not linked to the evaluation procedures of local school districts or to certification procedures?

Who will bear the costs of these programs? Can these costs be allocated from existing programs or must they be add-ons? What assumptions are we willing to make about how well trained teachers should be by the time they begin teaching? What are the relative costs of preparing teachers to different levels of preparedness for teaching? How do these costs compare with those of assisting teachers after they have begun to teach?

Are there forms of preservice training which might combine the ordinary functions of preservice training with assistance during the transition period? Can most of the practical functions of preservice programs be integrated into post-baccalaureate induction programs?

Who will be responsible for conducting assistance programs for beginning teachers or working intensively with them to prepare them for the experiences of the transition period? Should experienced teachers be used for this purpose? If they are, what kind of an assignment will they have? Will they combine teaching with working with beginning teachers? What is the most economical arrangement for using experienced teachers for this purpose? What changes in their status or position need to be made? Will they receive some form of additional or special compen-

sation? How will they be selected? Will they need to be trained? If so, by whom and how?

What ought to be the role of the teachers' organizations in these policy studies? Should some policy studies be conducted by teachers' organizations because by doing so we would obtain better data and we would obtain the interest and cooperation of teachers' organizations?

Should we set up studies to define more precisely the criteria of effective professional development? Do we need a think-tank for generating ideas about different kinds of assistance programs or professional development programs? Should we plan some pilot studies of systems for assisting teachers?

Many of the questions which we have listed here are questions which require discussion among different interested parties, and will be answered only by involving different individuals or organizations who are willing to work together on a solution. We think that a set of task forces in selected states might be created to sharpen these questions and to expand them. Then either staffs can be allocated to these task forces who will conduct the specific studies or some of the work might be parcelled out through the ordinary funding mechanisms.

Comparative Evaluations of Internships and Induction Schemes

We are inclined to discourage comparing the internship to an assistance scheme, which we are afraid is an idea that will occur almost immediately to people who want to answer the question: is it better to prepare teachers for the transition period or to help them during it? We

think that this question cannot be answered well enough to attempt to answer it.

Rather we ought to find out how well internships can prepare effective teachers, and how the internship helps them to master the transition period. We ought also to find out in what ways assistance programs build on what has been learned in the preservice program, the degree to which they undo or supplement what has been learned there or teach new skills, and how much of a difference they make in helping the beginning teacher through the transition period.

Once progress has been made on understanding the problems of beginning teachers and their causes, and after we have collected some basic data about how critical certain kinds of components in these different programs are or how powerful they may be or can be, we can design meaningful alternatives of the two major kinds of programs. We emphasize that only certain parts of these larger programs are genuinely different across programs, and until these differences are clearly identified and sharpened, our evaluation work is unnecessarily complex and time-consuming.

Some Pragmatic Suggestions and Methodological Notes

We have described two kinds of studies which we believe need to be done: research and development studies and policy studies. We have also urged that they be done simultaneously. It is believed by many that research must precede policy-making; that better policies can only be made if research has been done first. But as can be seen in the policy questions suggested here, research on these questions does not depend on

research on the problems of the beginning teacher. This latter research is not likely to determine who is going to fund programs, or who is going to direct and manage them. It will resolve only a few policy questions such as those affected by the scope of the problems or whether or not an effective program has been found to help beginners with a certain type of problem.

Policy studies will neither be effective nor accepted if they do not involve all groups which have an important stake in what happens to teachers in the transition period. Teachers particularly need to be represented officially, to be consulted, and to participate in discussions and analyses; they should participate in and perhaps even direct and conduct policy and research studies. School boards have an equally important role to play.

Perhaps now is the time to consider seriously efforts to have teachers themselves assume responsibility, direction, and leadership in designing ways of helping beginning teachers. This suggestion is not intended to denigrate the contributions of teacher educators or others nor to suggest that their ideas are shopworn and that they are no longer a viable source of reform and improvement. Perhaps a shift in responsibility, greater sharing of responsibility, or an allocating of responsibility for different kinds of functions across teacher educators and experienced teachers will change the foci of training and create better programs, and develop a genuinely cooperative program of teacher education.

We think that if induction schemes are going to receive the kind of serious attention which they deserve, special efforts will have to be

made to create programs of this kind in a variety of settings. We do not believe that all the possibilities have begun to be tried.

We also do not have any instances of programs which coordinate the preservice program with the in-service induction program (except the University of Oregon internship program). We need a test of whether or not the ordinary preservice program is sufficient if appropriate assistance or an internship is provided during the induction phase.

It might be pragmatically useful in many different ways to study the effects of the preservice programs in New York State, which provide a number of variations on the competency-based education concept. Different types of competency-based programs could be compared in terms of their effects on the induction phase, and the results of these studies could be used to shape the form that the internship might take as it is instituted in New York State on a statewide basis.

The State of Georgia obviously offers many opportunities for studying the problems of beginning teachers and conducting the kinds of experiments which we have recommended. Their program is well-established. Resources added to study how beginning teachers in Georgia master the induction phase seem as desirable as any study we can think of which utilizes ongoing programs.

The studies in these various places ought to be coordinated in terms of the kinds of problems of beginning teachers which are looked at, the kinds of data that are gathered, and the ways in which programs are described.

The research and development program supported here promises large and diverse payoffs. Almost anything that can be learned in a program that studies the problems of beginning teachers can be used to improve preservice and in-service programs. We are here at bottom concerned with a fundamental problem--how does one learn to become an effective teacher? Obviously, something is lacking in preservice programs. If we can discover what is lacking by studying the problems of beginning teachers, we will have taken the first step in learning how to improve the effectiveness of all teachers.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Throughout this volume we have made any number of specific conclusions as we discussed the different topics. We draw these together into the major ideas which emerged from the work of this study. We also present here our recommendations.

Conclusions

1. Perhaps the most important conclusion of this study is that the problems of beginning teachers have not really been thoroughly studied. We know that beginning teachers have serious problems in the transition period from preservice programs into teaching. We have general ideas about what these problems are. But we know very little about the specifics of these problems, how they develop, what factors influence them, and how they interact with each other.

Their effects on the teacher's development of competence and effectiveness and on the beginning teacher's competence and effectiveness and on the teacher's sense of efficacy is also unknown. We believe that a very painful and inept transition restricts and constrains the development of teachers so that they are more likely to use only those teaching practices which helped them to survive during the transition period. It may be that they remain at this level of teaching for some time and perhaps even throughout their professional career.

2. If the transition has this effect on competence and professional development, the criterion of the effectiveness of a preservice program

should be the extent to which its graduates master the transition period efficiently and effectively.

3. We have not found any program which adequately prepares teachers for the transition period so that they do not experience great trauma or anxiety or so that they move through it effectively and efficiently. Programs such as internships move up the experience of the transition period into the early days of the internship, but interns seem to experience much the same kinds of anxiety and difficulty which other beginning teachers do; but the internship provides the continuous support which appears to be needed during this transition period.

Internships and induction programs do not eliminate the problems of the beginning teacher. They assist the beginning teacher during the period of the transition, and it may be that the particular forms of assistance which are provided in each of these programs is the critical factor rather than the structure or format of the total program.

4. We are as uninformed about the best solutions for helping teachers with these problems as we are about the nature of the problems themselves. Much more extensive knowledge is needed about the nature of the problems of beginning teachers, their causes, and those components of training and support systems which may ameliorate or obviate these problems. Such knowledge can be obtained only by a comprehensive and directed program of research and development, by detailed observations of programs and by evaluating elements of these programs.

Policy Recommendations

1. We think that policy studies should be undertaken simultaneously

with research and development studies to assess the policy alternatives with respect to how to organize programs for beginning teachers.

2. The basic policy decisions which have to be made is who will be responsible for this transition period; who will bring together the groups who will participate in the policy decisions or recommendations or studies; who will organize the systems for developing programs for beginning teachers, how will fiscal support for programs be generated?

We recommend, given the scope and seriousness of the problems of beginning teachers, that the state governments should be primarily responsible for initiating the systems which will eventually develop programs for beginning teachers, wherever these programs may be located in the structure of teacher education and whatever form they may take.

3. We recommended that teacher organizations take a major role in the development of policies about research on the problems of beginning teachers, the development of programs for them, the study of policies with respect to these programs, and even the development and management of these programs.

Research Recommendations

1. The research study which should be given first importance is the careful delineation of the problems of beginning teachers, and their scope and severity. Samples of cohorts of beginning teachers should be followed to study these problems in depth. These beginning teachers should be studied from the time they begin their preservice program, through the transition period and for at least the first two years of their teaching careers.

The purpose of these studies should be to identify with precision the nature of the problems of beginning teachers, their causes and their dynamics.

2. We recommend a series of experimental studies designed to identify the precise causes of the major problems facing beginning teachers. This line of work is essential if we are to develop programs which will be effective.

3. We recommended that components of existing programs be systematically evaluated. We think that different aspects of certain programs, if studied in depth and compared with other forms in different programs, will provide us with data about what appear to be highly effective arrangements.

We believe that a coordinated and systematic program of research with these three major components could provide sufficient knowledge within three years to begin the development of pilot demonstrations of induction, assistance and preparation programs.

We have urged that teachers, teacher organizations, teacher educators and local administrators participate in the interpretations of these studies; that they also advise on their design so that these studies will have practical utility and so that the results of the research will be translated into programs which can be incorporated into the structure of teacher education with the support of the profession as a whole.

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